ADULT SOCIALISATION WITHIN A MILITARY TECHNICAL TRAINING SCHOOL

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This thesis is my own work and all the sources used in its composition have been acknowledged.

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ABSTRACT

This is a study of adult socialisation within an organisation. More specifically, it is a case study of the socialisation of a group of 142 engineering and electrical apprentices in the Royal Australian Air Force School of Technical Training (RSTT). The study assumes that socialisation occurs in three main areas: trade socialisation, military socialisation and peer group socialisation.

As a theoretical basis, three general areas of theory are drawn upon: socialisation theory, and, in particular, adult socialisation; organisation theory, and in particular, characteristics of military organisations and total institutions; and, socialisation within organisations, particularly military organisations.

As a background to the substantive findings, there is a detailed description of the characteristics of the recruit population who are the subjects of the study together with a social analysis of the socialising organisation.

Two chapters are devoted to the substantive findings. The first discusses the relationships between certain of the background characteristics of the recruits and the six criterion variables used as measures of socialisation in the three areas mentioned above.

The second chapter devoted to results discusses the reactions of the apprentices to the School. The subjects were tested both at the commencement of training and again at the end of their first year. Certain information was obtained on both

occasions and in addition the apprentices were asked for their own assessments of how they had changed over the course of the year. The chapter deals particularly with the process of integration, the fate of idealism and personal changes and developments.

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Finally, I wish to thank my wife Christine for her ready assistance and for having suffered for so long a pre-occupied husband and father.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

In January 1969, 158 young men recruited throughout Australia reported to the Royal Australian Air Force School of Technical Training (RSTT) to commence their apprenticeships in the Air Force. As part of their training they would spend two and a half years at RSTT before being posted to any one of a number of RAAF bases in Australia. At the time of their enlistment, their parents or guardians had signed them up for at least nine (and sometimes fifteen) years service in the RAAF. For most, this was to be their first long-term separation from home and, for the duration of their Service careers, most would never work in or near their home-town. Thus, at mid-adolescence, these young men had made a career decision of some moment.

At the time of the study the author was employed as a civilian psychologist in the RAAF Psychology Service. As such, he was concerned with validation of psychological selection procedures and isolating the factors which contribute to satisfactory course performance. However, in the author's opinion, other important matters were also worthy of attention. What were the characteristics of the members of the intake? Were there characteristics which would facilitate or inhibit adjustment to the Air Force? What were the characteristics of the training environment in which the recruits found themselves? How did they react to their new environment? In what ways would their training and their new experiences at the School change

them? These are some of the questions which the present study examines and attempts to answer.

The Study

The study is both problem-oriented and theory-oriented. It is problem-oriented in so far as it attempts to refine the selection criteria which the Royal Australian Air Force employs for recruitment to its Apprenticeship Scheme; it is theory-oriented in so far as it deals with the theory of adult socialisation within organisations by focussing on a particular instance of that process.

Methodologically, the investigation is of the 'case study' type, with the empirical study being confined to one particular cohort of recruits over one academic year in a particular organisation. It would have been useful to have had a control group against which comparisons could have been made. An approach was made to a large Australian airline which trains approximately the same number of apprentices in much the same trades as does the RAAF. The distinctive value of this group as a control would have been that their training occurs in a relatively 'open', civilian organisation. However, the company refused to co-operate on the grounds that such a study could be prejudicial to industrial harmony.

Although the author was based in Canberra, it was possible for him to make a small number of visits to RSTT during the year of the study. However, as is usual with such studies where the researcher is a passive observer of processes over which he has no control, there were a number of constraints. Thus, visits to RSTT had to be approved in advance and the

author's requirements could only be met as long as they did not conflict with those of the School. So, too, the School was under no obligation to the author so that, for example, changes could be made to the examination system or students could be suspended from course without any obligation on the School to advise the author.

Outline of the Report

This report consists of eight chapters. In Chapter 2, the theoretical bases of the study will be discussed. The chapter begins with a discussion of the theory of socialisation and, in particular, adult socialisation. It then examines some of the concepts drawn from organisation theory which appear to be relevant to the discussion of the structure and processes of RSTT. Finally, the discussion turns to adult socialisation within military organisations.

Chapter 3 is devoted to the research design employed in this study. After discussing some of the preliminary investigations, it describes the background information which was collected on each of the recruits and the reasons for collecting it. It then discusses the criterion data which were used to assess socialisation outcomes and the data which were used to assess change in the apprentices during their first year at the School.

Information about the apprentice population is presented in Chapter 4. The aim of this chapter is to provide the reader with a brief description of the characteristics of the population as part of a more comprehensive account of the process of adult socialisation within a particular socialisation context. The

characteristics of that context form the basis of the discussion in Chapter 5. That chapter discusses two matters in particular. Firstly, it examines the School as a socialisation setting in terms of models presented in Chapter 2. It then gives attention to some of the dynamics of the organisation, particularly the forms of control which it employs. Secondly, there is a discussion of the entry of the new recruit to RSTT and an account of both the formal and informal socialisation which he receives.

Chapter 6 is the first of two chapters devoted to the findings. It is concerned with the relationship between the background variables described in Chapter 3 and the socialisation outcomes. It makes the assumption that socialisation occurs in three major areas. Firstly, there is trade socialisation, that is, the learning of trade knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours appropriate to the role of tradesmen. Secondly, there is military socialisation, or the learning of the role of 'airman' and its associated skills. Finally, there is the socialisation which takes place in interaction with peers and which gives rise to peer group acceptance.

Chapter 7 also presents findings. The concern of this chapter is with the changes which the apprentices feel have happened to them over the course of their first year at RSTT. In particular, those changes are related to their changing perceptions of the aims of the Apprenticeship Scheme, the qualities of a 'good' RAAF apprentice, and their own accounts of the way in which they had changed while at the School.

Finally, Chapter 8 opens with a summary of the findings of this investigation. Then, both the theoretical framework

and the research design employed for the study are discussed. The chapter concludes with a suggestion that there are three areas which require greater research effort in this country. The three are adult socialisation into occupations (particularly non-professional occupations), adult socialisation within organisations, and militarism and military institutions.

CHAPTER II

THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF THE STUDY

There are three areas of theory which have been used as the basis of this study. The first is the theory of socialisation and, in particular, adult socialisation. The second is the theory of organisations and, in particular, military organisations and total institutions. The third is the theory of socialisation within organisations, and in particular, within military organisations. Thus, this chapter begins with a discussion of socialisation and then moves to look at some of the aspects of organisations which are of relevance for socialisation within organisations. Finally, the process of socialisation within military organisations will be examined. Not all of these areas can, of course, be treated in any great depth. Rather, each one is examined and discussed with the aim of throwing light on the subject of the present study, namely, adult socialisation within a military organisation.

Adult Socialisation

The earliest studies of socialisation were concerned with the process by which a child becomes an integrated, functioning member of the society into which he is born. Socialisation, in this most basic form, refers to the process

> which changes natural biological man into a working member of his community. The socialised individual is one who has acquired the habits, beliefs, skills, knowledge, dispositions, values, and so on, which are characteristic of his culture. (Anderson and Western, 1968:91).

Brim's definition is similar, emphasising the role of socialisation as a process preparing individuals for the membership of society:

> Socialisation refers to the process by which persons acquire the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that make them more or less able members of their society (1966:3).

In time, however, social scientists began to express the view that socialisation was not confined to childhood. As Becker notes, it seemed natural to accept the belief that all personal change did not end with adolescence but continued on through the life cycle. This continuing process could be spoken of as 'adult socialisation' (1968:198).

Nevertheless, it is generally accepted that the aims of childhood and adult socialisation are somewhat different. Most authors seem to be in agreement that the former is concerned to prepare the child for the generalised status of 'citizen' of 'human being' while the latter prepares individuals for more specific roles in life. Brim, for example, argues that role acquisition is probably the most important aspect of adult socialisation (1966:5). Thus, adult socialisation is the process whereby individuals are selectively prepared for location within the diverse role and institution-based structure of society.

An even more useful definition of adult socialisation from the point of view of the present study is that of Berger and Luckman who, while fundamentally in agreement with Brim, narrow the focus of their definition to include those roles associated with the division of labour in society. In their

view, adult or secondary socialisation, as they refer to it, is

> The internalisation of institutional or institution-based 'sub-worlds' ..... we may say that secondary socialisation is the acquisition of role specific knowledge, the roles being directly or indirectly rooted in the division of labour (1969:158).

Although it is possible to view childhood and adult socialisation as separate processes, nevertheless they remain intertwined and interdependent. This consideration leads Berger and Luckman to discuss what they regard as the 'fundamental problem' of the formal processes of adult socialisation. This is that adult socialisation always presupposes a preceding process of primary or childhood socialisation. It is felt by many that the chronological primacy of childhood socialisation, occurring as it does in what may be regarded as the most 'formative' years of life, ensures that it is more permanent and more profound than socialisation in later life. Certainly, this is the conclusion which Berger and Luckman themselves draw. Similarly, Brim regards the effects of childhood socialisation as one of the constraints upon socialisation of adults (1966:20).

The alternative point of view, namely that adult socialisation is as profound as its childhood equivalent, is accepted by other authors. Western and Anderson, for example, argue that

> No matter what the profession chosen, the complex initiation procedures leading to adult status in the tribe will produce personality and dispositional characteristics which will be as influential in their effects on behaviour as the characteristics acquired in the first five years of life (1968:96).

At the present moment, our knowledge of socialisation processes and their effect does not permit us to assess the relative impact and permanence of childhood and adult socialisation. What can be said is that individuals <u>are</u> socialised into adult roles, apparently without too much conflict between their new learning and their old. This usually smooth transition is due, no doubt, to a complex of interacting factors including selective screening, the relative lack of affectivity associated with adult socialisation and the relative absence, in this society at least, of blatently ideologically-based adult socialisation. It is a predominantly utilitarian process insofar as it is concerned with the division of labour, and most individuals seem to be more or less positively motivated to be subjected to it.

In many ways, of course, the relative lack of affectivity attached to adult socialisation is functional for the larger system. As Sewell observes, role learning is a continuous process throughout life and the individual must not only learn new roles and abandon old ones as he passes through various status sequences in his life cycle, but he will have to learn new roles as he experiences social mobility and disruptive changes which take place in society (1963:174).

Most of the empirical studies of adult socialisation have been directly or indirectly stimulated by the work of a small group of social scientists including Howard S. Becker, Anselm Strauss and Blanche Geer. This team produced a classic work in the field of adult socialisation, <u>Boys in White</u>, which was a longitudinal study of the socialisation into a professional

role of a cohort of medical students. The study shows the importance of the role of selection which serves to determine who will enter medical school. It then goes on to examine the students' changing perceptions as they undergo their years of training and their attainment, upon graduation, of the skills of and sense of identity with their profession.

Out of the Becker studies emerge two concepts which are useful and important. The first is the concept of 'student culture'. In their study of medical training (1961), the researchers were able to show that the students did not respond to the agent of socialisation as individuals but as a group. This led Becker and his colleagues to propose the existence of a distinctive 'student culture', by which term they referred to 'the meanings and understandings generated in interaction among the students, the perspectives they developed and acted on in confronting the problems set for them by the school, its authorities and the curriculum' (1961:199). Thus, the students were able to ameliorate the impact on their own selves of what appeared to them an overwhelming, monolithic structure. In this way, a beginning student does not need to rely solely upon his own personal resources to cope with this new experience. Rather, in the words of the author, the experience is 'mediated by the interpretations given him by the culture he participates in, a culture which allows him to discount and circumvent some of the efforts of his teachers' (1968:199).

The second important concept to emerge was what Becker and Geer (1958) termed 'the fate of idealism'. This term was coined to account for the finding that one of the most

significant changes to occur to students during their course was the decline of their idealism about medicine, both as a field of study and as a humane profession.

The socialisation of individuals into various roles, particularly the professions, has been a subject of continuing interest. In Australia, for example, Anderson and Western (1969) have studied socialisation into four professions: medicine, law, engineering and teaching. They have been able to demonstrate the importance of varying aspects of professional culture found in different university departments. They have shown the importance of certain structural variations in professional schools by demonstrating that students entering various faculties will achieve different results according to the particular university and faculty entered.

Anderson and Western (1968:104) have also proposed a model to account for the acquisition of elements of the professional culture. In its basic form, the model contains three elements: the individual and his characteristics, the characteristics of the institutional setting in which socialisation occurs, and the elements of the school culture which are to be acquired. This basic model can be elaborated for greater sophistication. For example, individual characteristics may include not only a variety of personality, sociological, demographic and ability elements, but also a cluster of other elements such as expectations, career plans, time of decision to undertake the course of study and so on. In similar fashion the other elements of the model can be expanded for purposes of analysis of particular situations.

Such models are not of theoretical interest only; they

also stimulate empirical investigations designed to confirm or deny the model. Nevertheless, their usefulness may be confined to fairly structured situations where the researcher is able to obtain a measure of what he considers the appropriate variables. More often than not, studies of adult socialisation have not taken satisfactory account of all the elements of the model. Probably more commonly, they have fallen into the 'learning to work' variety which aim to provide processual accounts of the learning of new roles and statuses. To close this section on socialisation we will examine briefly one such study.

The difference between this type of study and that favoured by Anderson and Western is that the former tend not to take any systematic account of the characteristics of the individuals (except for their role of socialiser or socialisee), or the characteristics of the setting in which the socialisation occurs. They may, however, take some cognizance of the elements of the culture to be transmitted. Such studies tend to concentrate on the interpersonal dynamics which facilitate learning of the necessary or desirable cultural elements. The view is taken that this 'acculturation', whereby individuals acquire the technical and social skills which will make them acceptable and satisfactory members of a particular group, occurs as a result of interaction between the 'new boy' and 'the old hands'.

One recent study of this type is that by Haas (1970) who studied the role of what he referred to as 'binging' in the socialisation of apprentice construction workers. Binging is the process of ridiculing new apprentices. It is, according

to Haas, an interactional process that workers use to test newcomers and fellow workers. The results of binging provide several important kinds of information. As a testing mechanism, workers learn about the self-control and trustworthiness of co-workers. Participants are able to provide each other with information about expected relationships. Binging also serves workers as a vehicle for passing on important technical, job-related information but in such a way that the inferior status of the information receiver is reinforced. Haas' work provides important insights into some of the dynamics of the socialisation process without much discussion of the organisational context in which it occurs. From the point of view of the present study, however, it is essential to discuss more fully some of the important dimensions of organisations as socialisation settings and it is to this that we now turn.

Organisations as Socialisation Settings

In a modern, industrialised society, there is a large diversity of organisations employing a large number of individuals. The greater diversity, specialisation and competitiveness of modern times has meant that most organisations find it necessary to socialise their recruits. Clearly, organisations will differ considerably both in their need to socialise and in their success in socialisation. What are some of the variations between organisations which account for different socialisation outcomes? The discussion will now turn to consider some relevant organisational dimensions and dynamics which may help to answer that question.

Wheeler (1966) has proposed a typology of interpersonal

settings appropriate to socialising organisations. The two-fold typology attempts to set out the types of interpersonal setting in which a new recruit to an organisation may find himself. The first dimension is the social composition of other members joining the organisation. This may be either 'disjunctive' or 'serial'. The latter refers to the situation where an individual moves into a position which has been held by someone before him and will be filled by someone after him. By contrast the disjunctive position refers to the situation where the person being socialised has neither predecessor nor successor; his situation is unique. The most common arrangement is, of course, for the serial composition of members joining the organisation. Organisations, particularly those whose manifest function is socialisation, will tend to favour this kind of arrangement since it will build up their own expertise in the recurrent socialisation of large groups of recruits.

The second dimension used by Wheeler is the 'social context of entering members' which may be either individual or collective. For the more profound types of socialisation and resocialisation, the former arrangement is obviously preferable. In that arrangement, the individual being socialised is clearly more vulnerable by virtue of his social isolation; as discussed earlier, when cohorts of recruits are being socialised they develop their own 'student culture' which serves to reduce the impact of socialisation on any one individual.

Wheeler concludes his discussion of the structure of formally organised socialisation settings by presenting a framework for the analysis of socialisation in organisations.

Like the Anderson and Western model, this one takes into account some of the characteristics of the individual as well as some of the characteristics of the socialising organisation and some of the elements of the culture to be transmitted. According to Wheeler's model, socialisation outcomes depend on a number of individual and organisational intervening mechanisms. From the point of view of the organisation, the important aspects will be its capacity to present clear norms, its capacity to provide performance opportunities, and its capacity to selectivity reward performance. From the point of view of the individual, what will be important will be his capacity to learn the norms, his capacity to perform, and his motivation to perform.

Using Wheeler's model, an adequate sociological theory of socialisation outcomes will require specification of the most relevant independent variables, their linkages through the intervening process to varying socialisation outcomes, and the conditions under which such patterns hold (1966:112).

Although helpful in specifying certain aspects of the structure of socialisation settings, Wheeler's model is inadequate in certain respects. For example, it takes no account of the characteristics of the novices or the elements of the culture which is being transmitted to them.

The organisations which are probably best able to induce desirable socialisation outcomes in individuals are those which Goffman has described as 'total institutions'. A total institution is a 'place of residence and work where a large number of like-situated individuals, cut off from the wider society for an appreciable period of time, together lead an enclosed,

formally administered round of life' (1968:11). Goffman has proposed that the following features are characteristic of total institutions:

Firstly, all aspects of life are conducted in the same place and under the same single authority. Obviously, under such circumstances, the organisation has an extremely high level of control over the behaviour of its members.

Secondly, each phase of a member's daily activity is carried out in the immediate company of a large number of others, all of whom are treated alike and required to do the same things together. Again, this aspect gives the organisation a very high level of control over its members.

Thirdly, all phases of the day's activities are tightly scheduled, with one activity leading at a prearranged time to the next, the whole circle of activities being imposed from above, through a system of explicit formal ruling and a body of officials. Here, too, an organisation increases its control by formalising a complete range of activities and ensuring, through its authority structure, that these formal arrangements are adhered to.

Fourthly, the contents of the various enforced activities are brought together as part of a single over-all rational plan purportedly designed to fulfill the official aims of the institution.

Fifthly, such institutions are characterised by an echelon type of authority structure. That is, any member of staff may impose sanctions on any of the inmates or recruits. In rigidly hierarchical organisations such as the military, however, there

is likely to be differential authority invested in functionaries at different rank levels. Furthermore, the authority of corrective sanctions is directed to a great multitude of items of misconduct such as dress, deportment, social intercourse, manners and so on. Also, misbehaviours in one sphere of life are held against one's standing in other spheres. As Goffman notes, this system of authority undermines the bases for control that adults in our society expect to exert over their interpersonal environment.

The overall effect of these organisational conditions is the likelihood of the organisation being in a position to exert an immense amount of control over its members. What are the important elements of control which a socialising organisation such as the military can use?

Etzioni's (1964) theorising on the matter of organisational control has led him to propose two important conditions, 'scope' and 'pervasiveness'. By 'scope' he means the number of activities carried out jointly by the participants in a particular organisation. Thus, in an organisation characterised by high scope, the recruits pass all their time in the company of other recruits. This arrangement tends to weld the recruits into a more cohesive social unit and serves to isolate recruits from non-recruits. It will be recalled that Goffman described the condition of high scope as one of the characteristics of total institutions.

By 'pervasiveness' Etzioni means the control which an organisation exerts over <u>all</u> the activities of its members. Some organisations are concerned only with some of the activities

of their members such as, for example, on the job performance. Others, such as total institutions, are characterised by high pervasiveness and tend to regard their members as never out of the range of organisational control.

Another form of control which is available to organisations in varying degrees is the authority to administer sanctions for unacceptable or deviant behaviour. In open organisations such sanctions may mean dismissal or demotion; in closed organisations with rigid hierarchical authority structures, sanctions may be much more elaborate and variable. In such organisations, the authority to administer sanctions may be possessed in varying degrees by various functionaries throughout the structure. Furthermore, such authority may be backed by a legal system such as military law.

And, finally, in the matter of organisational control, one other point should be noted. Organisations which exert a high degree of control over their members and whose membership is voluntary invariably employ some screening procedures for entry. Thus, the organisation has some opportunity to screen out applicants whom it suspects may prove difficult to control.

To conclude this discussion of some of the characteristics of organisations, attention will be turned briefly to some of the ways in which military organisations differ from civilian. In his classic study of the U.S. Army The American Soldier, Samuel Stouffer (1965) notes that for most of its civilian soldiers the Army was an entirely new world. He goes on to suggest three ways in which the Army contrasted with civilian institutions. Firstly, it possessed an authoritarian organisation

demanding rigid obedience. Secondly, it was characterised by a highly stratified social system, in which hierarchies of deference were formally and minutely established by official regulation, subject to penalties for infraction, whether a soldier was on or off duty. Thirdly, there was in the Army an emphasis on traditional ways of doing things and a discouragement of initiative.

Spindler (1948) in his analysis of the military, notes the peculiar nature of military organisations, particularly insofar as they meet all the primary biological needs of their members with the exception of sex. He sees the military as providing a warm, intimate primary group type of environment. Both those needs usually met by a mother - nurture, protection, welfare - and those usually met by a father - authority, discipline and justice - are all met by the military in respect of its members.

At the same time, of course, this surrogate parent-figure demands loyalty and commitment of its members and so its protection for them is counter-balanced by its possessiveness in respect of them. Thus, there is a deliberate attempt to sever the attachments between a new member and his former primary groups, particularly the family. This breaking of ties is facilitated in various ways such as by the confinement of the new recruit to camp during the first weeks of his service.

Adult Socialisation within Military Organisations

To this point, this discussion has centred upon the concepts of adult socialisation and some of the characteristics of organisations. It is clear from the discussion that military organisations are characterised by high control over their

members by virtue of their high scope and pervasiveness, their ability to administer sanctions and their total institution nature. In these and other ways they are different from civilian organisations. It is likely, therefore, that adult socialisation within military organisations will be relatively intensive. The discussion will now move on to review some of the available accounts of the process of military socialisation. The process has been of some interest to social scientists ever since the pioneering work of various researchers who had worked with the armed services during the Second World War.

Schneider (1947) proposed that there were three areas of adjustment for the new recruit as he joined the military organisation. First, he must adjust to affective losses due to separation from family and friends. To some extent, as suggested earlier, the military organisation provides some of the intimacy and support of former primary groups. Secondly, he must adjust to heightened demands for masculinity. Third, he must adjust to the brother-like relationships which exist between members.

In Weinberg's (1945) view, the military's demand for conformity and the social controls it employs to achieve it result in certain types of attitudes among trainees. These particular attitudes are a desire for military anonymity, increased responsiveness to commands, repression of personal difficulties and an emotional reliance on the group.

In his participant observation of the U.S. Coast Guard Military Academy, Dornbusch (1954) found that cadets are required to submerge identities which are based on past roles. For two months, the 'swab' - as the new recruit is known - is not

permitted to leave the base or to have social encounters with non-cadets. As is commonly found, hazing - the initiation and debasement of new recruits by more senior cadets - is officially forbidden but is tacitly permitted by staff.

A number of theories have been offered to account for the process of military socialisation. Solomon (1954) for example, sees the process as one which manipulates the recruit's self concept. Before he is a satisfactory member of the organisation, the recruit must develop 'the sort of self which corresponds to the type of organisation'. Thus, successful socialisation should result in the member accepting an altered view of himself. This change involves 'shedding of many deeply ingrained habits and tastes, and incorporating and internalising many distinctive new habits and attitudes'.

Dornbusch (1954) views military socialisation as the process by which the recruit learns a new role. This learning involves the acquisition of new norms, values, goals and expectations appropriate to the new role.

Merton (1968) and Hartley (1958) see the transition from civilian to military life as the adoption of a new reference group. On this view, the recruit takes as his own the norms, values, attitudes and behaviour of a group of significant others.

Finally, Salas (1968) employs an assimilation model developed originally to study international migration to account for the adjustment of recruits to life in the Australian Army. According to this model, the new recruit passes through three stages - satisfaction, identification, and acculturation - before becoming fully assimilated into the organisation.

Whatever may be the mechanics of the process, it seems clear that the change from a name to a number, the wearing of drab, loose-fitting uniforms and the surrender of civilian clothing, the cutting of hair to a short, standardised style and other such practices bring about changes in recruits. Furthermore, as Ziller points out (1964:343) these processes of 'de-individuation' are the more effective since the recruit is encountering difficulty in mapping the social field in relation to himself. Hollingshead (1946) notes that, during this period of disorientation the recruit must learn certain ground rules. Firstly, he must learn that there is a time for everything. Secondly, he must learn that how this time is used is defined by the organisation. Thirdly, he must learn that the organisation defines how the task allocated to a recruit is to be accomplished. And, fourthly, he must learn that everything is done in formation, that is, in one's group.

The reason for this de-individuation is clearly understood when the conditions of military service are considered. The following four points from a Royal Air Force publication highlight the essentially de-individuated role of the serviceman:

(a) Men employed in an organisation on which national survival depends must owe their allegiance direct to the Crown and must dissociate themselves from the right to bargain through trade union or other autonomous association.

(b) As a complement to (a), personnel in the RAF must surrender their individual freedom to the ultimate sanction of a military penal code.

(c) RAF personnel must accept the right of their superior to move them anywhere at a moment's notice.

(d) RAF personnel must also accept the right of their superiors to order them to work at any time without extra remuneration.

With the aid of the foregoing theoretical framework, Chapter 5 will analyse RSTT and the socialisation which occurs there.

Summary

In summary, it has been argued in this chapter that it is common for organisations to socialise new members to ensure satisfactory performance. The intensity of socialisation will, however, vary according to the nature and requirements of particular organisations. Military organisations make such special demands of their members and are so different in some respects from civilian organisations, that they are likely to require considerably more intensive socialisation programmes.

CHAPTER III

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

During January 1969, the 158 members of Number 23 Apprentice Intake arrived at RAAF Base Wagga to commence their apprenticeship training in the Air Force. By the end of that year, 142 of the recruits remained on course, the others having either withdrawn or been suspended from training. This study is concerned only with those who survived until the end of the first year of their training.[1] Space precludes separate analysis of the 'drop out' group.

As part of the preliminaries to this investigation, discussions were held with a range of informants both at the School and elsewhere. At RSTT, interviews were arranged with the Chief Instructor, various Technical Officers, instructional staff, chaplains, medical staff and with apprentices in the previous intake. Informants not at the School included graduates of the Apprenticeship Scheme and others in the Air Force who were or had been associated in an official capacity with the School. Out of these discussions came a number of ideas on what measures might best be used as criterion data, what variables were likely to be associated with successful socialisation in each of the three areas, and the ways in which the apprentices change during their first year at the School.

It will be recalled that the aim of the study was twofold. Firstly, it was planned to study the relationship between certain background variables and socialisation outcomes. Secondly, it was planned to describe some of the changes which

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[1] For the first six months, apprentices do a common core course and are randomly allocated to one of seven 'flights'.

occurred in the apprentices during their first year at RSTT. In order to meet these requirements, three sets of data were gathered: background data, criterion data, and follow-up (change) data. Each of these sets and the measures used will now be discussed in detail.

Background Information

These data were collected either at selection interview or during the third week after the apprentices arrived at the School. They are important for three reasons. Firstly, they provide a means whereby individuals and the group as a whole can be socially located; secondly, they provide a set of data with which variations in socialisation outcome may be correlated. Thirdly, they provide a basal measure against which change during the course of the year may be compared. The data and the means by which they were collected are shown below.

Aptitude Tests

The RAAF Apprentice Selection Test Battery includes six aptitude tests which have been in use for some years. The tests are under constant scrutiny and are subject to validity and reliability checks. In order of their administration they were:

WA - a test of word knowledge.

MX - a test of elementary mathematics covering addition, subtraction, division and multiplication.

TA - a test of technical aptitude requiring candidates, for example, to draw lines on a particular geometric shape to subdivide it into a number of required shapes or to nominate which direction a given cog in a cluster of cogs will turn when one of the other cogs is pushed in a given direction. TA also tests knowledge of workshop tools.

APPSM - a test of scientific (physics) knowledge and mathematical ability.

MA2 - a test of advanced mathematics covering algebra and trigonometry.

ER - a test of electrical knowledge, with both theoretical and applied orientations.

Residential Origin

Some informants suggested that among the apprentice population there was an overrepresentation of boys from rural or small-scale communities. These boys, it was claimed, unacquainted with large-scale, hierarchically structured organisations, sometimes encountered adjustment difficulties at RSTT. Information was collected therefore on the size of the population of the town or city from which apprentices were recruited. The information gained was classified into one of the following categories: less than 5,000; 5001-20,000; 20,001-50,000; 50,001-100,000; and 100,001 or more.

Family Background

For most of the apprentices, enlistment in the RAAF would represent their first major break from their families. Many informants expressed the view that family characteristics or family experiences can inhibit or facilitate adjustment to the way of life at RSTT. It is certainly the case that military life differs in many ways from civilian life as will be shown in Chapter V. It is possible, therefore, that new recruits experience some 'culture shock' when they enter an institution such as RSTT. On the basis of these considerations, it was decided that a good deal of attention would be paid to the family origins of the apprentices. Thus, the following information was collected from each apprentice:

(a) Parents' Marital Status. Some informants felt that the Services were inclined to attract apprentices from homes where the parents were either separated or divorced. The view was frequently expressed that Service life provides such apprentices with a 'stable environment' to which they adjust very well. The apprentices were asked, therefore, to use one of the following descriptions of their parents: married and living together, married and separated, divorced, mother deceased and/or father deceased, and no answer.

(b) Father's Occupation. Information was collected about the occupation of father in an attempt to ascertain whether those whose fathers are themselves tradesmen are more successfully socialised in trade areas than those whose fathers are in other occupations. The occupations of the fathers of RSTT apprentices were classified into one of the following categories: professional, managerial, clerical, skilled manual, semi-skilled manual, and unskilled manual and service (Broom & Jones, 1969:651).

(c) Number of Siblings. It was suggested by some informants that those apprentices who had originated from larger families were better accustomed to a more communal, less privatised style of living than those who originated from families with a small number of children. It was claimed that this type of family experience facilitated the apprentice's adjustment to the communal living of RSTT. Data were collected, therefore, on the number of brothers and sisters each apprentice had living with him (including step-brothers and step-sisters).

(d) Family Cohesion. As described earlier, some informants expressed the view that apprentices whose family life had been 'unsatisfactory' found that Service life provided them with an element of stability or security in their lives. Apprentices were asked, therefore, to nominate which of the following descriptions best fitted their own families: very close knit, quite close knit, not very close, and everyone just goes their own way.

(e) Preferred Parent. It was the opinion of a number of informants that those apprentices whose relationships with their mothers were too close found separation from home difficult and therefore experienced difficulty in adjusting to Service life. In response to the question 'With whom do you get on better?', the apprentices were asked to indicate one of the following: father, mother, no difference.

(f) Perceived Power Relationship with Parents. Some informants felt that those apprentices whose parents had been inclined to exercise a high degree of control over their children adjusted more easily to Service life. On the other hand, it was felt that apprentices whose parents had been rather 'easy going' and permissive found Service life rather difficult to adjust to. Apprentices were therefore asked: 'How are most decisions made between you and your father/mother?'. To both questions the following range of responses was provided for the respondents. The descriptions given to each response are shown in brackets (Bowerman and Elder, 1964:556):[2]

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[2]These seven response categories were proposed by Elder (1962:241-62). In the Bowerman and Elder article, responses 6 and 7 were combined with response 5 as they have been here. All three are labelled 'permissive'.

He/she just tells me what to do (Autocratic)

He/she listens to me but makes the decision him/herself (Authoritarian)

I can make my own decision but he/she has the last word (Democratic)

My opinions are as important as his/hers in deciding what I should do (Equalitarian)

I can make my own decisions but he/she likes me to consider his/her opinion (Permissive)

I can do as I like regardless of what he/she thinks (Permissive)

He/she doesn't care what I do (Permissive)

Previous Military Association

On the assumption that those apprentices who had had previous contact with the military through membership of a cadet organisation would have more realistic expectations for military life, the apprentices were asked if they had had such membership and if so, with which service organisation.

Personality Characteristics

The following two personality tests were administered to the apprentices:

(a) Authoritarian-Submission Scale (Webster, et. al., 1955:78). As will be seen in Chapter V, the Air Force is an organisation which requires its members to submit to its authority. It seems likely, therefore, that those apprentices who are inclined to defer to authority will be more easily socialised in military matters. A copy of the scale appears at Appendix A.

(b) Compulsiveness Scale (Webster, et. al., 1955;77). Some officers and NCO's concerned with trade training indicated

to the author that apart from imparting knowledge and skills to the apprentices they felt that it was important to inculcate attitudes to work and workmanship. In particular, carefulness in one's work was stressed since even small errors and carelessness may cause injury or death to aircrew. It seemed possible, therefore, that those who are inclined to compulsiveness might be more easily socialised in trade matters. A copy of the scale appears at Appendix B.

Expectations

At this first testing there were three attempts to tap the apprentices' expectations about Service life and the socialisation they would undergo. The following questions which were also repeated at the end of the first year at RSTT were asked:

(a) 'What do you see as the main aim or aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme?'

(b) 'What are the qualities a good RAAF apprentice must learn to develop?'

In addition, the apprentices were asked to rank five characteristics in order of importance. Until recently, the five characteristics were used at RSTT for assessing the performance of apprentices. It was felt that they might represent potential areas of change in the apprentices during their first year at the School. The five characteristics are:

good appearance and bearing
good workmanship
dependability and reliability
good service attitude
good trade knowledge

Criterion Data

During the preliminary investigations, the author formed the impression that the apprentices at RSTT undergo socialisation in three separate areas: trade socialisation, military socialisation, and peer group socialisation. Firstly, they acquire technical knowledge and skills and the knowledge, attitudes and behaviours appropriate to the role of 'tradesman' (trade socialisation). Secondly, because RSTT is a military school, it is clear that socialisation into the military way of life occurs, involving the acquisition of the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours appropriate to the role of 'serviceman' or 'airman' (military socialisation). Finally, it seemed apparent that, as part of his adjustment to his peer group in the communal life of a relatively closed organisation such as RSTT, each apprentice would have to learn the behaviours and attitudes necessary for acceptance by his peers (peer group socialisation). The following measures of socialisation were made at the end of Phase I, approximately mid-way through first year.[3]

Trade Socialisation

Since RSTT's assessment procedures have been developed by educationists and psychologists, it seemed appropriate to use the School's trade assessments. Performance on Theory (an objective test) is converted to a five-point scale and Practical performance is rated on an unlabelled five-point scale.

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[3]After Phase 1 the apprentices take one of six trade courses each with its own subjects and examinations. This eliminates the possibility of comparisons between courses.

Military Socialisation

Here, too, the staff of the School make their own assessments, in this case of the success of military indoctrination. The assessment 'Behaviour as a RAAF Member' is made by N.C.O. Drill Instructors on an unlabelled five-point scale.[4]

Peer Group Socialisation

In a closed environment such as that at RSTT, it is reasonable to assume that any given apprentice must relate reasonably well with at least some of his peers. Thus, by use of a sociometric questionnaire, each apprentice's acceptance by his peers could be gauged. All apprentices were therefore asked: 'Who are the apprentices in your flight you would like to share a room with?'. The number of nominations received by each apprentice was tallied to give his score on Peer Group Acceptance.[5]

Peer Assessment of Trade Socialisation

On the assumption that the members of a flight form their own impressions of the distribution of trade skills among their fellows, the following question was asked: 'Who are the apprentices in your flight who are the best tradesmen?'. The number of nominations received by each apprentice was tallied to give a total score for Trade Proficiency.[5]

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[4]Both this rating and Practical had been standardised by the School to eliminate possible between rater variations and to enable between flight comparisons.

[5]Although the flights were of approximately equal size, there were some slight variations. The following formula (Gronlund, 1959 74) was used to correct for the size of flight:

$$\text{No. of nominations} = \frac{\text{No. of persons choosing the individual}}{\text{No. of persons in the flight} - 1.}$$

Peer Assessment of Military Socialisation

As with trade socialisation, apprentices form their own impressions as to the success of military socialisation among their fellows. The following question was therefore asked: 'Who are the apprentices in your flight with the most airman-like qualities?'. The number of nominations received by each apprentice was tallied to give a total score for Military Proficiency.[6]

Follow Up (Change) Data

At the end of their first year, the apprentices were asked for a second time certain of the questions which they had answered during the first testing. These questions related to the recruits' expectations about Service life and the socialisation they would undergo. By comparing responses to the same questions asked on each occasion, it was hoped that it would be possible to detect changes which had come about as a result of socialisation experiences during the year. Thus, the following two questions were re-asked: 'What do you see as the main aim or aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme?' and 'What are the qualities a good RAAF apprentice must learn to develop?'. Also, the apprentices were asked again to rank the following characteristics in order of importance:

good appearance and bearing
good workmanship
dependability and reliability
good service attitude
good trade knowledge

In addition, the following open-ended question was also asked: 'In what way or ways have you changed since coming to RSTT?'.

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[6] Ibid.

CHAPTER IV

THE RECRUIT POPULATION

It is appropriate at this point to offer a brief description of the recruits who are the subjects of this study. The number includes only those 142 recruits who completed their first year of training and excludes the 16 who were suspended or withdrew from the course. In some respects, it will be possible to compare the recruits with the general population but, even where this is not possible, the data which follow will give the reader useful information about the characteristics of the population studied.[1]

Origins

Information was collected on where each recruit was residing at the time of his application for the Air Force. In this case, an arbitrary classification of towns according to their population in June 1968 was used. It may be seen from Table 4.1below that approximately one-third of the recruits were from highly urbanised areas with a population of 100,000 or more, whereas almost two-thirds of the Australian population live in such areas. Almost half of the recruits had come from towns of less than 20,000 as compared with about one-fifth of the general population (Official Year Book of the Commonwealth of Australia, No. 57, 1971: 126).

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[1]Aptitude test and personality scale scores will not be discussed since no Australian norms are available for either and the scores alone are meaningless.

Table 4.1

Population of Residence of Apprentices at Time of Enlistment (In Percentages)

Over 100,001	33.1
50,001 - 100,000	6.3
20,001 - 50,000	9.9
5,001 - 20,000	23.2
Less than 5,000	26.1

Table 4.1 clearly indicates that there is an over-representation of recruits from small-scale communities. This phenomenon is a familiar one to RAAF recruiting authorities who attribute it to poor employment prospects for school-leavers in rural areas. It is argued that, recognising this, parents in these areas ensure that their children join employing organisations which will accept some custodial responsibility for employees. The likelihood that parents choose the Armed Services for their sons is no doubt increased by the fact that mobile recruiting teams visit a large number of country towns.

Family Background

A slightly larger number of apprentices reported that their fathers were deceased or that they did not know if their father was alive than those who said this of their mothers (7.7 per cent as opposed to 2.1 per cent).

The marital status of the parents of the apprentices is compared with that for the general adult population as at 1966 (Official Yearbook of the Commonwealth of Australia, No. 57, 1971:134) in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Marital Status of Parents
(In Percentages)

	RSTT	1966 Census
Married and living together	83.8	86
Separated	3.5	2.7
Divorced	5.6	1.6
N.A. or D.K.	1.4	*

* Not available in census data

In respect to divorce, the parents of the RSTT population have approximately three and one-half times more divorcees than are in the general population. If the Divorced and Separated categories are combined, it is seen that the RSTT population have more than twice the representation of such persons in the general population. While the absolute numbers in the apprentice population are small, their proportional over-representation may give some clue as to their reason for enlistment. For example, it could be argued that for the parent of such a 'non-normal' family, a son may represent an economic burden and/or a custodial responsibility of which he or she now wishes to be free.

Information was also collected on the occupation of the father of each apprentice and then categorised into the Broom, Jones and Zubrizycki classification of occupations. Because of the small numbers in many categories, the six category classification (Broom & Jones, 1969:651) has been used in favour of the 16 category one. Table 4.3 below shows the distribution of occupations of the fathers of apprentices and the distribution

of occupations for the Australian male population from the 1966 census (Official Yearbook of the Commonwealth of Australia, No. 57, 1971:687).

Table 4.3

Occupations of Fathers
(In Percentages)

	RSTT	1966 Census
Professional	6.3	10.7
Managerial	18.3	13.1
Clerical	12.0	13.7
Skilled Manual	21.1	21.3
Semi-skilled Manual	11.3	20.9
Service & Unskilled Manual	24.6	20.4
N.A. or D.K.	6.3	-

The data in the table reveal that in two occupational areas - Clerical and Skilled Manual - the proportion of RSTT fathers matches quite well with the male Australian workforce. However, in respect of Professional and Semi-skilled Manual, the fathers of the RSTT population are proportionately under-represented. Furthermore, the broad category of 'Professional' conceals a bias in the RSTT group. Thus, most of the Professionals are so-called 'lower professionals' such as teachers and technicians. Finally, there were six apprentices (4.2%) whose fathers were members of the armed services.

The number of siblings in the family of each apprentice is shown in Table 4.4 below. In this case, no distinction was made between blood relatives and step-brothers and step-sisters.

Table 4.4

Number of Siblings in Apprentice Families
(In Percentages)

0	0.7
1	11.3
2	31.7
3	15.5
4	14.1
5	14.8
6	5.6
7	1.4
8	2.8
9	1.4

The mean number of siblings was 3.3 making the mean number of children in apprentices' families 4.3. It is difficult to get accurate data on the number of children per family for the Australian population. However, figures are available which show that for parents married during 1954-55 and who had completed child-bearing after 15 years of marriage, the average number of offspring per family was 2.5 (Official Yearbook of the Commonwealth of Australia, No. 57, 1971:687). Clearly, the RSTT apprentices are, on average, drawn from families which are larger than the national average. One likely explanation of this finding is that parents of large families may need or wish to reduce the economic burden which a teenage son represents and may therefore seek to enlist him in the Armed Services.

From objective family characteristics, we now pass to the apprentices' subjective perceptions of their families. As

explained in the previous chapter, the extent of family cohesion was measured with a single question. Responses to that question are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Perceived Cohesiveness of Apprentices' Families
(In Percentages)

Very closely knit	53.5
Quite closely knit	40.1
Not very close	4.9
All go their own ways	1.4

Only two apprentices felt that their families were such loose units that the members 'just went their own ways', while seven described their families as being 'not very close'. The great majority saw their families as being either quite close or very close, with slightly more falling into the latter category.

Table 4.6 shows that most apprentices (70.4%) felt that they got on equally well with both parents. Of those who favoured one parent over the other, slightly more favoured their mother.

Table 4.6

Parent with whom Apprentices get on Better
(In Percentages)

Father	9.9
Mother	11.3
No difference	70.4
N.A.	8.5

An attempt was also made to assess the perceived power

structure in the apprentices' families in respect of the relationship between each apprentice and each of his parents. Table 4.7 shows the types of responses to the question 'How are most decisions made between you and your father/mother?'.

Table 4.7

Perceived Power Relationship between Apprentices and their Parents (In Percentages)

	Father	Mother
1. Autocratic	4.9	3.5
2. Authoritarian	15.5	7.7
3. Democratic	17.6	18.3
4. Equalitarian	21.1	23.2
5. Permissive	31.0	44.4
6. N.A.	9.9	2.8

Table 4.7 shows that there was a good spread of responses over all five categories with the exception of 'autocratic'. In the case of both fathers and mothers, the modal classification is "permissive" with mothers being more often regarded so. Almost twice as many apprentices see their fathers as being autocratic or authoritarian as those who perceive their mothers as such.

School Background

Here, the concern is not so much with educational performance and attainment as with broad classes of school experience. With respect to educational attainment, the group is relatively homogeneous in that all members had reached the level of the Victorian Intermediate (four years high school) standard or its

equivalent. None had proceeded beyond that level.

The recruits were asked to say whether they had attended a State High School, a State Technical School, a private school, or any combination of these. Private school boys were asked to indicate whether they had been boarders or day boys. The responses to the question are given in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Type of School Attended
(In Percentages)

State High School	69.7
State Technical School	15.5
Private School (Boarder)	3.5
(Day)	9.2
Private & State High	2.1

The proportion of the 15 year old male school population attending non-government schools in Australia in 1968 was approximately 22 per cent (Official Yearbook of the Commonwealth of Australia, No. 57, 1971:630). On this basis, there is an over representation in this population of boys who have attended government schools. Of those in the RSTT population who attended non-government schools, 77.7% had attended Roman Catholic schools.

Previous Military Association

Although many of the apprentices who had attended small schools or rural schools would not have had the opportunity to join school cadets or a locally-based Air Training Corps, it

was thought that a knowledge of the apprentices' previous contact with the military could be useful. Table 4.9 indicates that 38.7 per cent had at some stage been members of the school cadets or a locally-based cadet training corps. Of these, a little more than half had been in the RAAF's Air Training Corps and the remainder in the Army cadets.

Table 4.9

Membership of Cadet Organisations
(In Percentages)

No membership	61.3
Membership - ATC	20.4
-Army	18.3

Summary

In this chapter, some of the characteristics of the recruit population have been presented. It was shown that a majority of them came to RSTT from rural or small-scale communities. Most of their parents were alive and living together although the number whose parents were either separated or divorced was somewhat higher than the national average. It was also shown that apprentices, on the whole, originated from families which had a larger than average number of offspring. The fathers of the apprentices were predominantly in 'blue collar', low income and/or low status occupations.

The majority of apprentices felt that their families were quite close or very close and most reported that they got on equally well with both parents. On the whole, apprentices saw

their mothers as being more inclined to be permissive and less inclined to be autocratic or authoritarian than they saw their fathers.

Most of them had attended a state school, including 15.5% who had attended State Technical Schools. Excluding a small number (2.1%) who had attended a mixture of state and independent schools, only 12.7% had attended non-government schools. This proportion was a little more than half the number who attended such schools in the general Australian secondary school population.

Finally, only about 39% had been involved with school or other military cadet groups. A little more than half of these had been in the RAAF's Air Training Corps.

CHAPTER V

THE RAAF SCHOOL OF TECHNICAL TRAINING

Introduction

Some years after his Arabian campaigns, T.E. Lawrence joined the Royal Air Force under an assumed name as a general intake recruit. As a result of his experiences, Lawrence wrote derisively: 'About the RAF there is nothing military except the intelligence of some of its officers'. (1955:78) Lawrence was referring to the Air Force's lack of a distinctive military tradition and the separation of all but a few of its personnel from combat. Since the RAAF is closely modelled on the RAF, it is not surprising that the same criticism is sometimes levelled at the Australian Air Force. Although the experiences of aerial combat on a large scale during World War II have facilitated the development of a distinctive military role, both Air Forces remain sensitive to the criticism.

The Australian Air Force sees itself and wants to be seen as a military service in every sense. So it is that all persons joining the Permanent Air Force are required to undergo an initial period of military indoctrination. Underlying this practice is the principle that any member of the Air Force must be, above all else, an officer or an airman[1], as the case may be. The members of the 23rd Apprentice Intake, who are the subjects of the present investigation, underwent their military

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[1] In the Air Force, the title 'airman' does not connote flying duties but is the equivalent of the Army 'private'.

indoctrination at RAAF Wagga.

RAAF Base Wagga - the site of the RAAF's School of Technical Training (RSTT) - is located at Forest Hill, seven miles from the New South Wales provincial city of Wagga Wagga. The School was set up in 1946 on what had been a war-time airfield. Its aims, in the words of its Charter, are:-

> To train young men of an appropriate age to a high degree of skill in engineering and other Service support trades as required by the Department of Air.
>
> To imbue in all trainees a sense of good citizenship and a spirit of devotion and pride in the Service to which they belong.
>
> (RAAF Base Wagga Publication)

Clearly, the goal of the training programme is not simply technical competence but also the inculcation of certain attitudes and values.

The School has a Commanding Officer of Group Captain rank to whom the Chief Instructor is responsible. Below the Chief Instructor, the formal organisation of the School consists of three training squadrons: the Initial Training Squadron (ITS) and the Electrical and Mechanical Training Squadrons (ETS and MTS). The Initial Training Squadron consisted, in the case of this intake, of seven flights (classes) with apprentices being alphabetically allocated to one of the flights soon after arrival at the School. Three trades are taught in each of the other two Squadrons, providing for at least six trade flights. In the present study there were nine flights since some trades were being taught to two flights.

Each squadron and flight has its own Commander who is a technical officer. The instructional load is carried predominantly by Non-Commissioned Officers who are subject specialists.

At the beginning of their two and a half years at RSTT, all apprentices spend six months in the Initial Training Squadron. Subsequently, they are allocated to one of the particular trade training flights. Allocation is made on the basis of a compromise between preference of the student, his performance to date and Service manpower requirements.

During their first six weeks on course, the recruits receive about six hours per week in instruction of an academic nature, mostly mathematics and physics revision. The remainder of the time set aside for instructional purposes is devoted to General Service Training. This includes the following subjects: Organisation and Administration (of the Air Force), Drill, Medical (First Aid), Physical and Recreation Training, Fire Fighting, Weapon Training and Moral Training.

Over the course of the first six months in Initial Training Squadron, 599 hours are scheduled for Trade Training (Theory and Practical), 213 hours for General Service Training, and 130 hours for Course Administration (including kit inspections, locker inspections and public holidays). Although in the Electrical and Mechanical Training Squadrons the number of hours devoted to trade training is significantly increased, General Service Training continues to play an important part in the training programme.

RSTT as an Organisation

In the preceding chapter, a number of characteristics of formal organisations were presented as a set of theoretical notions of relevance to the present study. It is now proposed to examine the usefulness of these concepts in describing the structure of the RAAF School of Technical Training.

As a processing system RSTT is highly differentiated. The implications of this high degree of differentiation are clear. In the first place, from the student's point of view, because there is such a diversity of short-term courses being conducted by a diversity of instructional staff, the apprentices often lack one individual who for them is an adequate role model or significant other. The School regards the Flight Commander as the equivalent of the high school 'form master' but in practice, he is so rarely in contact with the apprentices particularly as the year progresses that he does not fill that role adequately. Consequently, the relationship between staff and students - already very formal - is made even more impersonal.

Secondly, from the point of view of the Staff, the high degree of differentiation results in difficulties in social control. The instructor has short-term contact with such a large number of students that he is unlikely to be able to establish other than the most formal, authority-based relationship with his students. This situation is complicated by the fact that most staff do not volunteer for instructional duties and, on the whole, do not enjoy such postings.

Using Wheeler's model of socialisation settings, a new cohort of trainees enters the School at the beginning of each year.

This arrangement has important implications for the informal socialisation which occurs within any one cohort and between the new cohort and the second and third year cohorts of trainees. Because of this 'serial' processing of recruits, each new intake is confronted by the two groups of trainees who have preceded. In an informal fashion, these more senior students are effective in socialising the new recruits into the role behaviours appropriate to their lowly status. Such socialisation - institutionalised by tradition - instils in the new recruit the important lesson that all superiors must be respected. At the same time that the new recruits are learning this respect for superior power, they are, in their 'fellowship of suffering' (Moore, 1969:878) facilitating their own group cohesion and awareness. That cohesion will be so well-developed within a year that they will then take their turn as agents of informal socialisation.

Probably the most significant fact to be noted about the School is its close resemblance to a total institution. It is a residential work place where a large number of like-situated individuals are cut off from the wider society for a long period of time and together lead an enclosed, formally administered round of life. Of course, the School is not a classic total institution but it does to some degree meet the criteria proposed by Goffman.

After an initial period of confinement to base, the apprentices are permitted to leave it during certain hours at the weekend. They may, for example, visit the city of Wagga Wagga. However, because of the geographical isolation of the

base and the poor public transport services such visits are not frequent. Also, permission to leave the base for visits other than to Wagga Wagga is only granted in the case of what the authorities believe to be 'good reasons' such as the visiting of relatives. As a result, apprentices spend most of their spare time on base.

Within a total institution such as RSTT, the scope of the organisation's control is enhanced. The apprentice finds that most of his waking hours are spent in the company of his fellow apprentices. After sleeping four to a room, the apprentices wake to shower communally, then to assemble together in formation on the parade ground before being marched off to mess and communal breakfast. After eating, they are marched back to their quarters where they prepare for the day. After another assembly, they march off to classes for the day. Even at nights and week-ends, it is difficult for any apprentice to avoid the company of his fellows.

Organisational control over the apprentices is also very pervasive. Even when their day's work is finished, or when they visit Wagga Wagga, the apprentices are subject to the Air Force authority structure. Thus, Service Police from the base patrol the city when RAAF personnel are likely to be there in order to act as a deterrent to misbehaviour and to apprehend those who may commit misdemeanors.

Two final and related points need to be made about the organisation of the School. Firstly, its authority structure is of the echelon type with each staff member responsible to an immediate superior and responsible for a number of subordinates.

Thus, secondly, sanctions for non-conformity by the apprentices may be administered by staff at any level of that hierarchy. Consequently, one of the most important lessons the neophyte can learn is that he must subject himself unquestioning to all legitimate authority figures. He must not and cannot resist that authority. For example, an apprentice who questions the authority of a junior NCO will find that the NCO is backed in succession by a senior NCO, a Warrant Officer, a Flight Commander, a Squadron Commander, the Chief Instructor and, ultimately, the Commanding Officer. Most students, rather than be passed right up through this array of authority figures, will find that the simplest course of action is to conform. In the case of those whose academic performance is not good enough, one of the most powerful sanctions is the withdrawal or withholding of leave entitlements. Thus, an apprentice may be required to pass supplementary examinations after his colleagues have left on leave.

As well as this legitimate authority, apprentices are also subject to the illegitimate authority of the informal pecking order among their peers. This is particularly true of first-year students. Sanctions for non-compliance with informal rules may result in anything from social ostracism to some (usually mild) form of physical retribution such as a roughing up. New recruits find in this situation, too, that a submissive compliance is the easiest course of action. About initiation of first year apprentices one of the informants in the previous intake said: 'It's best to take it all and not fight back ... you can't buck the system.'

In summary, the socialisation setting of the School is one which is likely to produce socialisation outcomes satisfactory to the Air Force. In terms of Wheeler's model, all of the necessary organisational requirements are present. Firstly, the School has the capacity to present clear norms; secondly, it has the capacity to provide performance opportunities; and, thirdly, it has the capacity to selectively reward performance. The individuals being socialised have both the capacity to learn the norms and the capacity to perform satisfactorily. The most doubtful element in the total process is the individual's motivation to perform. Some will be highly motivated, others not. From the foregoing description of the School, it is possible to speculate that all students will feel compelled to appear at least superficially motivated to perform well.

The Entry of the New Recruit

The initial experiences of RAAF apprentices during their transition from civilians to servicemen fit the 'classic' descriptions given in Chapter 2. The apprentices arrive at the School from all over Australia and almost immediately begin the process of 'deindividuation' (Ziller, 1964:344) by which their own personalities are submerged and breaks with the past are made. Most experience the School as a living and working environment rather different from any they have previously known.

It is not long before the new recruits have at least the superficial appearance of servicemen. They are kitted with their drab uniforms and required to pack all their civilian clothes into a suit-case which the School then returns to their parents. The uniform in which they will now spend most of their time

consists of dark blue overalls, army boots and slouch hats. On the back of their overalls in three inch high letters is their surname and over the breast pocket is their service number. Regulation hair cuts are ordered for any recruits whose hair is too long or whose style does not conform to Service standards. With the current fashions in men's hair, many recruits feel this as a real blow to their self-concept and eligibility to members of the opposite sex.[2]

At the same time, the organisation undertakes the role of provider. It clothes, feeds, accommodates, disciplines, rewards, counsels its members and accepts the responsibility for their medical, dental, economic, spiritual and moral welfare. In accepting these custodial responsibilities, the School performs the role of surrogate parent.

As indicated earlier, the apprentices spend the first six months at the School in the Initial Training Squadron. It is during this critical period that the most intense socialisation occurs. For the first six weeks, they are not permitted to leave the base and even after this time, they are not as free to do so as more senior apprentices. When they go into Wagga Wagga, they must always wear their uniforms. This is a source of annoyance to many of them as they feel the local residents are prejudiced

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[2]When the author visited the School for the second testing, his side-whiskers proved to be of considerable interest to the apprentices. Manifesting their feeling of relative deprivation, they complained that their hair and side-whiskers had to be regulation length.

against servicemen and their uniforms and/or haircuts make them highly visible.

The first year apprentices are known as 'sproggs' and they are subject to 'rumbling' which is a mild form of what has become known as 'bastardisation'. Rumbling manifests itself in two forms. Firstly, there are raids, mostly by second year rather than third year apprentices, on new recruits' sleeping quarters and beds are turned over, mattresses thrown out of windows, and pillow fights and some roughings up take place. The new recruits are usually finding their new environment and timetable very fatiguing and so the raids in the night are particularly disturbing. Secondly, rumbling manifests itself in senior apprentices demanding privileges from new recruits, for example, surrender of cigarettes. In either case, any resistance on the part of the new-comers will be met with a strong reaction. Most frequently, rumbling is done by second year apprentices, that is, the new recruits' immediate seniors. As a staff member commented, third year apprentices feel they are "above that sort of thing". What would account for the difference between the boys in second and third years? Wakeford (1969:114) found the same phenomenon in his study of the English public boarding school. He reasoned as follows:

> In their anxiety to dissociate themselves from novice status they (the second year boys) are the strongest supporters of ritualistic initiation procedures from the outset and consistently ensure that the new boy behaves in a manner consistent with his position in the house and in the school.

Wakeford is arguing, then, that the process is functional for

both first and second years. For the latter, it reminds them that they have successfully negotiated one of the organisation's rites of passage, that is, the movement from first year to second year status. For the first years, the process serves to socialise the new recruit into his new milieu. A second function of the process (which Wakeford does not mention) is that, in the processing of collectivities, it facilitates identity with the group and group cohesion.

The most important formal agents of socialisation during ITS are the Corporal Drill Instructors. It is their responsibility to see that the new recruits are given proper military indoctrination. Each flight has its own assigned Drill Instructor and spends some time with him each working day. Contact with officers is usually limited to those Education Officers who conduct mathematics and physics revision. The Squadron Commander in charge of the Initial Training Squadron for this intake took a close interest in the processing of the new group. He explained that it was his practice when he came across any of the new apprentices to ask them 'what must you do?' Soon after their arrival at the School he had warned them that whenever he asked that question they should respond 'Everything right, sir!'

For those who find that Service life is not to their liking, there is provision during a limited period of time for them to opt out simply by obtaining their parents' or guardians' written approval. This period during which an apprentice may reconsider his decision to join the RAAF lasts for the first ninety days of his engagement. During this time, withdrawal from the

course is relatively simple if not prompt. An apprentice who indicates his desire to leave is interviewed by a number of staff including the Squadron Commander. After this initial period of grace, however, leaving the Air Force becomes a very difficult matter. In the view of the Air Force, the member has engaged for a period of nine (or sometimes fifteen) years and he must honour that obligation. Only those who are unable to meet academic and trade standards or those who are or become severely maladjusted to Service life are able to obtain discharge. Thus a well-adjusted lad with good ability who wants to leave the Air Force may feel obliged to fail examinations and/or become deviant in order to gain discharge.

For all apprentices whose course performance and/or personal conduct has been unsatisfactory, the final court of judgement is the School Interview Board before which such individuals must appear. The Board, which consists of the Chief Instructor and other senior officers, is convened in those cases where it seems doubtful that the apprentice may remain at the School. The manifest function of the Board is to assess the trainee in order to decide whether he should remain in course or be suspended. Its latent function, however, seems to be as a suitably over-powering environment where the poor performer or deviant may be warned and, hopefully, remotivated.

The impression which this author has is that most first-year apprentices are satisfied with their new situation, ego-involved in it and willing to give their best. This latter impression is confirmed by observations such as that offered by one of the School chaplains:

> You can pick the first years on the drill parade. They take it seriously. The second and third years do not.

At Easter, the apprentices have their first leave to return to their homes. It is during and after this time that some significant changes appear to take place. Many, for example, find that they no longer enjoy the company of their former civilian friends. Some apprentices expressed the view that those former friends had not matured as quickly as they themselves had. Many apprentices say they are glad to return to RSTT and their 'mates'. These are among the first signs that the apprentices are being successfully socialised into RSTT and its way of life.

Summary

This chapter has described some of the structure and processes at the RAAF School of Technical Training which are of relevance to the present study. In the discussion of the School as an organisation, it was shown that it closely resembles what Goffman has termed a 'total institution'. It has a number of like-situated individuals living and working together in one place. Over these individuals the organisation has considerable control by virtue of the high scope and pervasiveness, its legitimate authority to administer sanctions and withhold privileges and the difficulty the recruit faces in voluntary withdrawal.

The entry of the recruit to RSTT is fairly typical of that of any recruit to any total institution. Steps are taken which deindividuate the recruit and which facilitate his integration into and identification with his new organisation. Socialisation into the organisation occurs both formally with the School's own

indoctrination programme and informally as the new recruit interacts with other new recruits and more senior students.

CHAPTER VI

RESULTS I

This chapter will examine the relationships between the background variables and socialisation outcomes for No. 23 Apprentice Intake at RSTT. Three areas of socialisation were investigated: trade socialisation, military socialisation, and peer group socialisation. The chapter opens with a discussion of the six criterion variables chosen as measures of socialisation in those areas. Then follow the presentation of the substantive findings and a discussion of the relationships between each of the background variables and the six criterion variables.[1]

The Criterion Variables

In all, six criterion variables were used in this analysis. All six measures were made at the end of the first phase of training, approximately mid-way through the first year. Three measures of trade socialisation were used: firstly, performance in the Theory examination conducted by the School; secondly, performance in Practical, also assessed by the School; and thirdly, assessment of Trade Proficiency as made by peers. To

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[1]In Appendix C the reader will also find a report of multivariate analyses of the relationships between the background variables and each of the criterion variables. The technique used - Stepwise Multiple Regression - is described fully in the Appendix. The results of the analysis have not been presented in the text of this chapter because not all of the background variables were included and the results from the two analyses are therefore not comparable.

measure military socialisation, two variables were used: firstly, Behaviour as a RAAF Member, as assessed by the School; and secondly, Military Proficiency, as assessed by peers. In the case of peer group socialisation, the one variable used was peer group acceptance as measured by peer group nominations. The means and variances of the criterion variables are shown below in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1

Means and Variances of the Criterion Variables

	Mean	Standard Deviation or Range
Theory (staff test)	3.2	1.0 (SD)
Practical (staff rating)	3.2	0.8 (SD)
Trade Proficiency (peer rating)	4.0	0-12 (range)
Behaviour as a RAAF Member (staff rating)	3.6	0.7 (SD)
Military Proficiency (peer rating)	2.3	0-20 (range)
Peer Group Acceptance (peer rating)	2.7	0-10 (range)

These six criterion variables are, of course, interrelated to varying degrees as Table 6.2 reveals.

Table 6.2

Product Moment Correlations between the Criterion Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Theory		45++	24++	49++	29++	II
2	Practical			21+	48++	33++	27++
3	Trade Proficiency				19++	59++	72++
4	Behaviour as a RAAF Member					26++	18+
5	Military Proficiency						47++
6	Peer Group Acceptance						

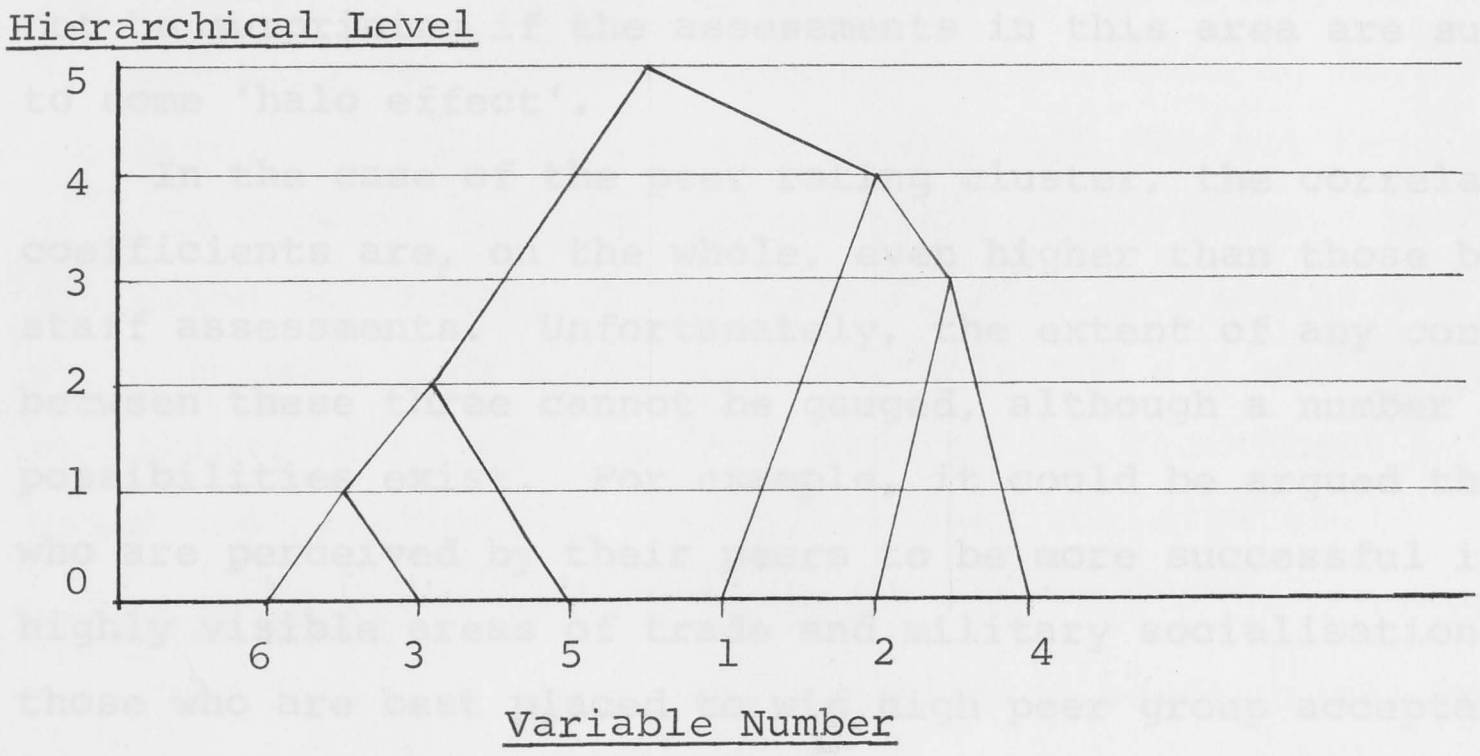
N = 142 (decimal points omitted)
\+ = .05 level of confidence
++ = .01 level of confidence

In order to discover more about the underlying structure of the matrix, a McQuitty Hierarchical Linkage Analysis (1964) was performed. Briefly, this analysis orders variables hierarchically into clusters such that every variable in a cluster is more like some other variable in that cluster than it is like any variable in any other cluster. Diagram 6.1 presents the final pattern of the analysis.

As the diagram illustrates, there are two major clusters emerging: assessments made by staff and assessments made by peers. Thus, the highest correlation between two variables, one from each cluster, is that for Practical and peer rating of Military Proficiency ($r = 0.33$). The correlations between items within the same cluster are, however, uniformly higher, ranging from 0.45 (Theory and Practical) to 0.72 (Peer Group Acceptance and peer rating of Trade Proficiency).

Diagram 6.1

McQuitty Hierarchical Linkage Analysis Pattern
for Criterion Variables



Variable 6 - Peer Group Acceptance (peer rating)
Variable 3 - Trade Proficiency (peer rating)
Variable 5 - Military Proficiency (peer rating)
Variable 1 - Theory (staff rating)
Variable 2 - Practical (staff rating)
Variable 4 - Behaviour as a RAAF Member (staff rating)

The moderately high correlations between items within each of the clusters do raise the possibility of some contamination between the items. While no definitive statement can be made on the basis of these data, it is possible to make certain speculations. For example, with regard to the staff rating cluster, it is known that the only "objective" assessment is the Theory examination which is of the multiple-choice objective type. The Practical and Behaviour as a RAAF Member assessments are, on the other hand, open to a good deal of subjectivity. In the author's

understanding of School procedures, Theory and Practical results are known to the staff member who makes the assessment of Behaviour as a RAAF Member. Under these circumstances, it would not be surprising if the assessments in this area are subject to some 'halo effect'.

In the case of the peer rating cluster, the correlation coefficients are, on the whole, even higher than those between the staff assessments. Unfortunately, the extent of any contamination between these three cannot be gauged, although a number of possibilities exist. For example, it could be argued that those who are perceived by their peers to be more successful in the highly visible areas of trade and military socialisation are those who are best placed to win high peer group acceptance. Alternatively, it might be argued that those who establish an initially high peer group acceptance are therefore likely to be perceived as more successful in trade and military socialisation.

Finally, it should be noted that the low correlations between staff and apprentice assessments of both trade and military socialisation reveal a considerable lack of consensus on these matters between the two groups. What is the significance of this discrepancy? On the basis of the theoretical discussion in Chapter 2, it is suggested that this lack of consensus points to the existence of a 'student culture' (Becker, et. al., 1961) with its own distinctive perspectives moulded out of peer group socialisation and shared experiences at the School.

The discussion will now turn to the relationships between the background and the criterion variables. Of course, only associations between them can be discussed, not causal connections.

Thus, although an association may exist between a particular background variable and a socialisation outcome, it is not possible to assert that the former is the cause of the latter. For such an assertion to be permissible, it would, of course, be necessary for adequate statistical controls to have been employed. In this exploratory study such has not been the case.

In view of the high correlations found between most of the criterion variables, it has been decided to examine the relationships between each background variable and all six criterion variables. This will be done despite the fact that, in some cases, no relationship might have been anticipated.

Aptitude Tests

In Table 6.3 below, the correlation coefficients between the six aptitude tests in the apprentice selection battery and the six criterion variables are shown. Most of the aptitude tests show some significant relationship with Theory. Only the test of word knowledge (WA) bears almost no relationship to that criterion. All of the other tests with the exception of TA (the test of technical aptitude) test either mathematical ability or science knowledge or both. Since the Theory examination is also a test of ability in these areas, the relatively high correlations are not surprising.

Both TA and ER (the test of electrical knowledge) show significant correlations with Practical. As indicated earlier in the discussion of these two selection tests, both include some 'applied' orientation. TA, for example, tests a candidate's ability in spatial perceptual tasks and the relevance of this aptitude to practical workshop tasks is evident. ER includes a

Table 6.3

Product Moment Correlations between Aptitude Tests and Criterion Variables

	WA	MX	TA	APPSM	MA2	ER
Theory	08	16*	36**	40**	28**	39**
Practical	11	-03	20*	06	02	19*
Trade Proficiency	-06	03	03	14	07	13
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	-06	02	17*	10	08	10
Military Proficiency	-12	03	04	15	00	09
Peer Group Acceptance	-08	-01	-05	00	06	06

N = 142 (Decimal points omitted)
* = .05 level of confidence
** = .01 level of confidence

number of questions which test the candidate's knowledge of household electrical appliances and wiring.

In all of the other correlation coefficients, only one reached statistical significance, and this was only just significant at the five per cent level. This was the correlation between TA and Behaviour as a RAAF Member. Since no relationship between the two would have been hypothesised and since no plausible explanation can be offered for the finding, it must for the moment be regarded as having been a chance occurrence.

Residential Origin

Table 6.4 below shows the correlation coefficients between each of the six criterion variables and the size of the hometown of the apprentices.

Table 6.4

Product Moment Correlations between Size of Hometown and Criterion Variables

Theory	.06
Practical	-.03
Trade Proficiency	-.08
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	.11
Military Proficiency	-.01
Peer Group Acceptance	-.08

N = 142

The information in the table shows that there were no statistically significant relationships between size of hometown and the criterion variables. It will be recalled from the discussion in Chapter 3, that size of hometown (that is, the town from which the apprentice was recruited) might have been expected to have been negatively correlated with general adjustment to the bureaucratised Air Force way of life. In fact, this has not been found to be the case.

Family Background

Performance on the six criterion variables has been studied in relation to a number of family-related variables. The first of the family variables to be considered relates to the father of each apprentice and whether or not he was still alive at the time of testing. Only three of the apprentices indicated that

their mothers were not alive and that matter will be pursued no further. In Table 6.5 below, performance on the criterion variables is shown for those whose fathers are alive, those whose fathers are deceased, and those who did not know or gave no answer.[2]

Table 6.5

Father Alive/Deceased and Mean Score on Criterion Variables

	Father Alive	Father Deceased	N.A./ D.K.
Theory	3.2	3.1	3.3
Practical	3.2	3.4	3.3
Trade Proficiency	3.9	5.3	4.1
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	3.6	4.0	3.5
Military Proficiency	2.3	2.1	5.5
Peer Group Acceptancy	2.6	4.0	2.8
N =	131	7	4

The most interesting patterns in the table relate to the seven apprentices who reported that their fathers were deceased. On three of the criterion variables, they are rated more highly than either of the other two groups. Two of the higher ratings are given by peers (Trade Proficiency and Peer Group Acceptance) and one by staff (Behaviour as a RAAF Member).

It is difficult to see why this pattern might have emerged, although it is possible to offer some suggestions. Firstly, it

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[2]Since this is a study of all of the members of No. 23 Intake and not a sample thereof, tests for the significance of differences have not been used in this chapter.

could be claimed that the high ratings given to those whose fathers are deceased represents a 'sympathy vote'. This is a highly unlikely possibility, however, since it assumes that the death of the father was relatively recent, that it was known about by at least some of the apprentices and staff, and, most importantly, that such knowledge would in any way influence ratings.

The second explanation has greater plausibility but would need to be further investigated before firm conclusions could be drawn. This explanation would assume that, at least insofar as this group of seven apprentices is concerned, the three ratings in question were general indexes of 'popularity' with both staff and peers. If this much could for the moment be accepted, the next question to be asked is: what factors would be at work to make this group generally popular? For the moment, this question must remain unanswered. Only further enquiry could suggest possible answers to the question or dismiss the present findings as chance occurrences.

The next family variable to be related to the criterion variables is the marital status of the parents of the apprentices. Table 6.6 below provides the relevant data. The data in the table reveal some interesting trends. Unfortunately, the numbers in the 'non-normal' groups are quite small and therefore preclude firm conclusions. Thus, the two apprentices in the N.A. category, although they are rated relatively highly on four of the six criterion variables, will not be discussed at all. Some interesting comparisons can be drawn, however, between the eight apprentices whose parents were divorced and the eight who

Table 6.6

Marital Status of Parents and
Mean Score on Criterion Variables

	Normal	Separated	Divorced	One or Both Deceased	N.A.
Theory	3.2	2.6	3.3	3.4	4.0
Practical	3.3	3.2	2.8	3.5	3.5
Trade Proficiency	3.8	5.0	3.4	5.4	6.5
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	3.6	3.6	3.4	4.0	3.5
Military Proficiency	2.2	1.2	2.9	2.0	5.5
Peer Group Acceptance	2.6	3.6	2.6	3.5	3.0
N =	119	5	8	8	2

indicated that one or both of their parents were deceased. In the case of four of the criterion variables, the latter are rated, on average, more highly than the former. Two of thefour variables were staff ratings (Practical and Behaviour as a RAAF Member) and the other two peer ratings (Trade Proficiency and Peer Group Acceptance). On a fifth variable - peer rating of Military Proficiency - the trend is reversed with the sons of divorcees being rated more highly than the other sub-group. On the one criterion variable which is likely to be objective, there is almost no difference between the two sub-groups.

It is known from the foregoing discussion that those apprentices whose fathers were deceased were, in some respects,

rated more highly than other apprentices. It was suggested that whatever might be the reasons, this group might be popular with both staff and peers. Since only three of the apprentices indicated that their mothers were deceased, the sub-category in the above table who are labelled 'One or Both Parents Deceased' are comprised mainly of the same apprentices who were discussed earlier as having a father who was deceased. If this sub-group in Table 6.5 are, then, a more generally 'popular' group, the sons of the divorcees are, by comparison, a relatively unpopular group. Only in one respect - Military Proficiency - are the sons of divorcees rated more highly than most other apprentices. However, the staff rating of Behaviour as a RAAF Member puts this group fairly lowly indicating that they are not proficient in those areas which the staff regard as indicators of successful military socialisation; only their peers regard them as having been, on average, more successfully socialised in military matters. Whatever may be the elements of successful military socialisation from the point of view of the apprentices, it seems likely that those who are proficient in this area are also likely to be those who are less popular with both staff and peers.

The single criterion variable which is intended to measure popularity with peers is Peer Group Acceptance. On this variable, it can be seen from Table 6.5 that, on the one hand, the sons of divorced and 'normal' parents are lowly rated while, on the other hand, high ratings are given to the sons of separated parents and those having one or both parents deceased.

The sons of separated parents are relatively highly rated by their peers on Peer Group Acceptance and Trade Proficiency

and relatively lowly rated by peers on Military Proficiency. By way of comparison, the sons of divorcees are rated in the reverse fashion. That is, they are relatively lowly rated on Peer Group Acceptance and Trade Proficiency and relatively highly rated on Military Proficiency.

It is difficult at this stage to suggest reasons to account for these findings apart from the possibility that they are chance occurrences. In respect of the Separated, Divorced, and One or Both Parents Deceased categories, the pattern appears to be for the sons of Divorcees to be rated in a reverse fashion from that in which the others are rated. With the exception of Military Proficiency, the sons of the divorcees are rated more like the 'normal' group than are the sons of separated parents and those who indicated that one or both of their parents were deceased. Two matters seem then, to require explanation. Firstly, why are the sons of divorcees seen by their peers to have been more successfully socialised in military matters? And, secondly, why are the sons of separated parents and those having one or both parents deceased rated more highly by their peers on Peer Group Acceptance and Trade Proficiency?

The next family variable to be considered is Occupation of Father. Table 6.7 below provides the relevant data. One of the most interesting patterns to emerge from the table relates to the relatively high assessments given to the small number of apprentices who did not know what their fathers' occupation was. On only one of the criterion variables were these apprentices not rated more highly than all others and that criterion was Practical, as assessed by staff.

Table 6.7

Occupation of Father and
Mean Score on Criterion Variables

	Pro-fessional	Mana-gerial	Clerical	Skilled Manual	Semi-Skilled Manual	Unskilled Manual Service	D.K.
Theory	3.3	3.1	2.6	3.6	3.4	3.1	3.6
Practical	3.0	3.3	3.1	3.4	3.3	3.1	3.3
Trade Pro-ficiency	3.8	4.0	3.6	3.8	4.2	4.0	5.1
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	3.6	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	4.2
Military Pro-ficiency	0.4	1.7	3.1	2.3	3.1	2.2	3.4
Peer Group Acceptance	2.0	2.8	2.8	2.6	3.3	2.2	3.6
N =	9	26	17	30	16	35	9

A second group who tended to be highly rated in a number of areas is the sons of Semi-skilled Manual workers. Only on two of the criterion variables are they not rated higher (Theory and Practical, both staff ratings). Both of these groups receive high ratings from their peers on all criteria indicating, perhaps, a very high level of general peer group acceptance. By comparison the sons of Professionals receive, on the whole, relatively low ratings in all three areas from their peers. This group and the apprentices who did not know their fathers' occupation are equal in size and therefore make for an interesting comparison. As far as peer ratings are concerned, it can be seen that the

differences between the two groups are quite dramatic. Once again, do these differences represent simply differences in popularity? Certainly, on Peer Group Acceptance the differences between the mean assessments for each group are very pronounced. A number of possible explanations exists. For example, it could be that the sons of Professionals had aspired to something better than trade training and therefore feel out of place at RSTT and resentful at being there. Hence, they could have very low acceptance from their peers. By comparison, those apprentices who did not know their father's occupations might feel more contented with their lot at RSTT and even feel that their training is providing them with good career opportunities. Such a view would receive some support from the fact that the sons of Semi-skilled Manual workers are also highly rated. However, the sons of the Unskilled and Service fathers, on this argument, ought also to be highly rated. In fact, like the sons of Professionals they are quite lowly rated.

The notion of anticipatory socialisation received as a result of one's father's occupation is not well supported by the data in the table. Thus, for example, on Practical, the sons of the Skilled Manual workers are only marginally more highly assessed than the sons of Clerical workers and Unskilled Manual workers. No clear pattern emerges with peer ratings either. The sons of Managerial, Semi-skilled Manual and Unskilled Manual workers are all rated more highly than the sons of Skilled Manual workers.

Information is presented in Table 6.7a below on the ratings given to the sons of fathers in the Armed Services.

Table 6.7a

Sons of Armed Services Fathers
and Mean Score on Criterion Variables

Theory	2.7
Practical	3.0
Trade Proficiency	4.0
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	4.0
Military Proficiency	2.5
Peer Group Acceptance	2.0

N = 6

In relation to those apprentices whose fathers were servicemen, the interest in the above table is in two criterion variables: Behaviour as a RAAF Member (staff rating) and Military Proficiency (peer rating). Referring to Table 6.7, the sons of servicemen are rated by the staff, on average, higher than all other groups with the exception of those apprentices who did not know what their fathers' occupation was. Their peers, however, rate them, on average more lowly than most other groups. Once again, it is clear that the staff and the apprentices have different criteria for successful military socialisation. It is also noteworthy that the sons of servicemen are less popular with their peers (as measured by Peer Group Acceptance) and also perform relatively poorly on Theory.

Next in the range of family variables to be considered is the number of siblings in the family of the apprentice. Table 6.8 below provides the relevant data.

Table 6.8

Product Moment Correlations between Number of
Siblings and Mean Score on Criterion Variables

Theory	-.04
Practical	-.09
Trade Proficiency	.02
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	-.05
Military Proficiency	-.09
Peer Group Acceptance	-.05

N = 142

The data in the table indicate that there is no significant relationship between the size of the apprentices' families and socialisation outcomes. It will be recalled that some of the informants had proposed that apprentices from large families settle in more easily to RSTT and are more successfully socialised. The above data fail to support such a contention.

The extent of cohesion in the families of the apprentices, as perceived by the apprentices themselves, is the next family variable which will be related to performance on the criterion variable. Table 6.9 provides the relevant information.

Table 6.9

Product Moment Correlations between Perceived Family Cohesion and Mean Score on Criterion Variables

Theory	.03
Practical	.02
Trade Proficiency	.08
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	.05
Military Proficiency	.11
Peer Group Acceptance	.13

N = 142

The data in the table indicate that there is no significant relationship between the perceived cohesiveness of the apprentices' families and score on the criterion variables. It will be recalled that some of the informants had proposed that close ties with family could inhibit successful socialisation at RSTT and adjustment to the Air Force way of life. The above data fail to support such a contention.

The next of the family variables to be related to the criterion variables is Preferred Parent. Some informants had expressed the view that those apprentices who had a close bond with their mothers were likely to experience difficulties in adjusting to life at RSTT. Table 6.10 provides the relevant data. The data in the table reveal

Table 6.10

Preferred Parent and Mean
Score on Criterion Variables

	Father	Mother	No Difference	N.A.*
Theory	3.1	3.0	3.3	3.3
Practical	2.7	3.3	3.3	3.3
Trade Proficiency	3.1	3.9	4.0	5.1
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	3.4	3.6	3.6	3.7
Military Proficiency	0.9	2.8	2.4	2.4
Peer Group Acceptance	2.1	2.6	2.7	3.1
N	14	16	100	12

that those who preferred their mothers are, on the whole, at least as well assessed as either those who preferred their fathers or those for whom there was no difference, and sometimes they are rated higher. Ironically, in the peer rating of Military Proficiency, they are rated higher than all other groups.

The most interesting trend to emerge from the table related to those who preferred father. Apart from Theory, and possibly Behaviour as a RAAF Member, they are, on average, rated lower than any of the other groups. At least part of the explanation of this finding may be that this group are less popular with their peers. Certainly, they are rated lowest of all on Peer Group Acceptance. Both staff and peers rate them lowly on trade socialisation (Practical and Trade Proficiency) and, as we have seen before, staff and peers are not for the most part in agreement in their ratings. Their peers also give them a considerably lower rating in Military Proficiency than they give any of the other groups. Between the ratings for the Mother and No Difference groups, there is a great deal of similarity. In most respects, the Father group is rated a good deal lower than these other two. In the two areas where the N.A. group is divergent from the Mother

and No Difference groups, it is noticeably so. Thus the members of the N.A. group are more popular (Peer Group Acceptance) and they are rated by their peers as having a very high Trade Proficiency. No plausible explanation can be offered at this stage for this finding.

The last family variable to be considered is the perceived power relationship between apprentices and each of their parents. Table 6.11 provides the relevant information.

Table 6.11

Product Moment Correlations between Perceived Power Relationship with Parents and Score on Criterion Variables

	Father	Mother
Theory	.05	.08
Practical	.08	-.02
Trade Proficiency	.08	.07
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	.08	.06
Military Proficiency	-.08	-.06
Peer Group Acceptance	.11	.15

N = 142

The data in the table reveal that there is no significant relationship between the perc eived power relationship with each parent and score on the criterion variables. It will be recalled that some informants expressed the view that apparentices from strict, disciplinarian homes would adjust more satisfactorily to the Air Force way of life. The data fail to support such a contention.

Previous Military Association

As suggested in Chapter III, it seemed reasonable to hypothesise that those apprentices who had had some previous contact with the military through cadet organisations might find that such anticipatory socialisation facilitated military socialisation at RSTT. In Table 6.12 below, mean scores on each of the criterion variables are shown for apprentices according to their previous membership of cadet organisations.

Table 6.12

Membership of Cadet Organisations and Mean Score on Criterion Variables

	No Membership	Army Cadets	Air Training Corps
Theory	3.2	3.3	3.2
Practical	3.2	3.4	3.2
Trade Proficiency	4.2	3.7	3.5
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	3.6	3.7	3.5
Military Proficiency	2.3	2.0	2.5
Peer Group Acceptance	2.8	2.4	2.6
N	87	26	29

With the staff ratings of military socialisation the variations in scores between the three groups are clearly minor although there is a tendency for ex-Army cadets to be rated more highly than ex-Air Training Corps cadets. With the peer rating of military socialisation, however, this tendency is reversed with the ex-A.T.C. boys being rated considerably higher, on average, than the ex-Army boys. In the case of both staff and peer

ratings, the boys who were not members of either organisation form a middle group. The variations between the groups on the staff rating are so slight that they demand no comment other than that which has already been made. The variations in the ratings of peers are, however, more noteworthy. It appears that ex-A.T.C. cadets are seen by their peers to be slightly more proficient in military matters than those boys who did not belong to a cadet organisation. On the assumption that ex-cadets have received more anticipatory socialisation in military matters, such a finding seems plausible.

Ex-Army cadets, however, are not only seen as being less proficient than ex-A.T.C. boys, they are also seen as being less proficient than those boys who ha ve had no previous military association at all. The most obvious conclusion suggested by this finding is that anticipatory military socialisation received in Army cadet organisations inhibits military socialisation at RSTT, at least insofar as it is rated by peers.

Personality Characteristics

It will be recalled that it was proposed in Chapter III that there was likely to be an association between submission to authority and successful military socialisation at RSTT. The correlation coefficients indicating the degree of association between scores on the Authoritarian-Submission Scale and scores on the criterion variables are shown in Table 6.13. The data in the table show that there is no significant relationship between authoritarian-submissiveness and military socialisation as it is rated by staff (Behaviour as a RAAF Member). However,

Table 6.13

Product Moment Correlations between Authoritarian-Submission and Score on Criterion Variables

Theory	-.06
Practical	-.01
Trade Proficiency	-.14
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	-.10
Military Proficiency	-.17*
Peer Group Acceptance	-.28**

N = 142
* = .05 level of confidence
** = .01 level of confidence

there is a low but statistically significant negative correlation between score on the personality scale and military proficiency as it is rated by peers. In other words, there is a tendency for those who score low on the Authoritarian-Submission Scale to be rated high on Military Proficiency (the peer rating) and viceversa. As far as peer ratings are concerned, then, the finding is the reverse of what might have been anticipated.

The most statistically significant coefficient in the table revealed a correlation which was not anticipated, namely between authoritarian-submissiveness and popularity (Peer Group Acceptance). The correlation is negative, indicating that the more authoritarian-submissive the apprentice the less acceptable he is to his peers. Of course, this finding needs to be viewed with caution since the personality measure was made at the beginning of the year and the criterion measure approximately half a year later. In order for conclusions to be drawn about

the association between submissiveness to authority and Peer Group Acceptance, it is necessary to assume that the scores of the apprentices on the Authoritarian-Submission Scale would not change their relative positions over the time span involved. If that assumption of stability over time can be made, then this finding may be of interest in light of the apprentices' changing attitudes to authority during their first year at RSTT. This point will be discussed further in Chapter VII where those changing attitudes are reported.

As explained in Chapter III, it was expected that there would be an association between score on the Compulsiveness Scale and trade socialisation at RSTT. The correlation coefficients between score on the personality scale and the criterion variables are shown in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14

Product Moment Correlations between Compulsiveness and Score on Criterion Variables

Theory	-.04
Practical	.18*
Trade Proficiency	.12
Behaviour as a RAAF Member	.09
Military Proficiency	.11
Peer Group Acceptance	.06

N = 142
* = .05 level of confidence

As the data in the table reveal, there is a small but statistically significant correlation between score on the Compulsiveness Scale

and the staff assessment of Practical. However, the correlation between score on the personality scale and the peer rating of Trade Proficiency, while positive, fails to reach statistical significance.

Summary and Discussion

The chapter began with a discussion of the six criterion variables and the relationships which exist between them. With the use of a McQuitty linkage analysis (1964) it was possible to detect two clusters of correlations from the correlation matrix. The two clusters were staff ratings and peer ratings. Thus, the correlations between variables within each cluster were higher than those between variables from each cluster. Clearly, staff and apprentices were using different criteria for evaluating trade and military socialisation outcomes. It was suggested that this fact pointed to the existence of a 'student culture'.

Then, the relationships between each of the background variables and the six criterion variables were discussed. Five of the seven selection tests were found to be correlated with performance on Theory. Each of these tests had, at least in part, an orientation which was similar to that of the Theory test. The test which failed to correlate (WA) was the test of word knowledge. Only two of the selection tests correlated with score on Practical. These were TA and ER both of which incorporate an applied orientation. Only one other statistically significant relationship could be found between the selection tests and the criterion variables. This was a weak and probably chance correlation between TA and Behaviour as a RAAF Member

(staff rating).

No meaningful relationships could be found between the criterion variables and the size of the apprentices' hometown. It had been thought that a relationship might exist between the apprentices' previous experience of large-scale bureaucratic environments (cities, large schools and the like) and their subsequent success in socialisation at RSTT. However, no such relationship could be demonstrated. For the purposes of analysis, size of residential origin was considered as a continuous variable. However, in the light of other findings made with the treatment of variables as categorical rather than continuous variables, size of hometown might also have been considered as a categorical variable. In this way, the scores received by the members of each sub-category could be compared and variations between the sub-categories highlighted. However, with the use of a simple Pearson product-moment correlation, certain useful information might have been concealed. For example, the relationship between the two variables might have been non-linear.

Among the family-related variables, certain relationships were revealed between some sub-categories of variables and scores on some of the criterion variables. In many cases, a particular sub-group was rated higher or lower than other groups either by staff or peers or both. However, the membership of these 'deviant' sub-groups did not overlap to any extent. Thus, there were different sub-groups of apprentices in respect of each background variable, not <u>one</u> sub-group reappearing each time in respect of each of the background variables.[3] Although

[3]This is evident from the generally mutual exclusive nature of the sub-categories.

in all cases, the membership of such sub-groups was very small, the interest in them centres upon what they might suggest about the interrelationships between certain types of organisations and individuals from certain types of backgrounds.

More specifically, higher or lower than average ratings on some of the criterion variables were associated with the following sub-groups of apprentices: those whose fathers were deceased (N = 7), those whose parents were divorced (N = 8), those whose parents were separated (N = 5), and those whose preferred parent was father (N = 14). Those whose fathers were deceased were rated higher on Behaviour as a RAAF Member (staff rating) and on Trade Proficiency and Peer Group Acceptance (peer ratings). With the exception of Theory, the sons of divorcees were rated lower than most other apprentices. In respect of Military Proficiency (peer rating) they were rated more highly than most. By comparison, the sons of separated parents performed less well than the sons of divorcees in Theory and Military Proficiency (peer ratings) but better on all other criterion variables. Those whose preferred parent was Father (as opposed to Mother, No Difference, or No Answer) were rated lower on every criterion variable except Theory.

The relationships between the criterion variables and Occupation of Father presents a complex mosaic of findings. The sons of Clerical workers performed worse than all others on Theory while the sons of Skilled Manual workers and those who did not know their fathers' occupations performed best of all. There was a slight variation in scores for Practical with highest scores being obtained by the sons of Skilled Manual workers. Thus, as

far as staff ratings are concerned, the sons of Skilled Manual workers are rated higher than most others. With respect to the peer ratings of Trade Proficiency, however, the sons of the Skilled Manual workers received only moderate ratings. Those who received highest ratings were the sons of Semi-skilled Manual workers and those who did not know their fathers' occupations.

In the area of military socialisation, there is some agreement between staff and peer ratings. Thus, both groups agree on high ratings for the sons of Semi-skilled Manual workers and the sons of those who did not know their fathers' occupations. So, too, both agree on the poor performance of the sons of the managerial group. However, peers rate the sons of professionals very lowly and the sons of clerical workers very highly while the staff give both groups moderate ratings. On popularity (Peer Group Acceptance) the most highly rated groups were the sons of Semi-skilled Manual workers and those who did not know their fathers' occupations; the most lowly rated groups were the sons of Professionals and Unskilled Manual workers. Overall, the most consistently different group are those who did not know their fathers' occupations, who are given higher than average ratings on all six criterion variables.

Finally, no strong and clear cut associations could be found between Occupation of Father and trade or military socialisation outcomes. Only in one respect was there any suggestion of the importance of the role of anticipatory socialisation received as a result of fathers' occupation. This particular instance was that of the sons of servicemen (N = 6) who received a higher than average rating on Behaviour as a RAAF Member (staff rating).

In closing this discussion of the family-related background variables, it is noted that none of the four continuous variables used - Number of Siblings, Perceived Family Cohesion, and Perceived Power Relationship with each Parent - showed any meaningful relationship with any of the criterion variables.

The pattern of relationships between Previous Military Association and the criterion variables revealed both anticipated and unanticipated findings. Thus, as might have been expected, ex-Air Training Corps cadets were rated higher than other apprentices on Military Proficiency (peer rating). However, those whose cadet experience had been with the Army were rated lowest of all, lower even than those who had had no cadet experience at all. The staff, however, rated the ex-Army cadets slightly more highly than other apprentices (Behaviour as a RAAF Member). Those rated highest on Peer Group Acceptance were those who had had no cadet experience while the ex-Army cadets were rated lowest.

With the two personality scales used, some weak but statistically significantrelationships were found with some of the criterion variables. Thus score on the Authoritarian-Submission Scale was negatively correlated with Military Proficiency and Peer Group Acceptance (both peer ratings). Score on the Compulsiveness Scale was positively correlated with the staff rating of Practical.

Finally, before closing this chapter, some general comments are in order. Nothing has been said so far about the validity and reliability of the measures used, particularly the criterion variables and this is a matter of some importance. Undoubtedly,

the most reliable and valid criterion is the Theory examination. The School has a Trade Testing Section which, under the direction of an Education Officer, devises objective style pencil and paper tests in a fairly sophisticated fashion. No other of the criterion measures was so well prepared.

By comparison with the Theory examination, Practical is probably both less valid and less reliable. Practical assessments are conducted on the work shop floor while the apprentices are engaged in practical projects. Often, these projects are joint projects with a small number of apprentices working on each job. This situation makes it more difficult than it otherwise would be for an assessor to discriminate between the performance of individual members of the group. It seems likely that if apprentices were assessed on the basis of individual projects, discrimination would be easier. It would also be useful in the interests of improving discrimination to rate performance on a seven or nine point scale instead of the present five point scale. In conjunction with a mildly 'forced' distribution, this could greatly improve discrimination.

Then, too, the criterion measures which involve peer group nominations have some difficulties. For example, since an apprentice can nominate as many or as few of his fellows as he likes, it was usually the case that a good many of the apprentices received no nomination at all. This fact, of course, reduces discrimination between apprentices. A more satisfactory system for peer group nominations might be either to set individuals the task of rank ordering their peers for a particular trait or to set them the task of rating each of their peers on a specially

constructed rating scale. In both cases, of course, it would be necessary to use small groups so that the task would not be too difficult and then standardise group scores to enable between-group comparisons.

As a closing comment it is worth re-stating that this has been an exploratory study, the aim of which has been to suggest background characteristics which might be associated with success in socialisation at RSTT. In many ways the findings have been suggestive. However, as a general rule, it has been difficult either to provide a theory-based explanation for the findings or to relate them to the findings of similar investigations. It is, of course, possible that the findings discussed in this chapter are nothing more than random variations which are of no real significance. It is equally possible that they contain important clues for the understanding of the dynamics of the adjustment of individuals to organisations. Only further investigation can clarify this matter.

CHAPTER VII

RESULTS II

In this chapter, an attempt will be made to assess some of the changes which the apprentices underwent during their first year at RSTT. In the main, this is done by the 'before and after' method, comparing information obtained at the beginning of training with that received at the end of the year. Thus, apprentices were asked at both times of testing the following two questions: 'What do you see as the main aim or aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme?' and 'What are the qualities a good RAAF apprentice must develop?'. In addition, the ranking-of-qualities task described in Chapter III was also administered on both occasions. Finally, at the end of the year, the apprentices were asked: 'In what way or ways have you changed since coming to RSTT?'

What follows now is a discussion of the results obtained using each of the four techniques for gathering information and then a summary section which draws the findings together and makes some conclusions.

Aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme

Both at the first testing and at the second, the apprentices were asked the following question: 'What do you see as the main aim or aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme?'. The responses to this open-ended question were analysed and four themes or general response types extracted.[1] The same four themes emerged from

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[1] The same technique of analysis was used in the case of all 5 open-ended questions. That technique is described in Appendix D.

the responses given at the end of the year as at the beginning. By examining the changes in the frequency with which each theme occurs, it is possible to reveal some of the ways in which the apprentices had changed during the course of their first year at RSTT.

At the beginning of the year, 86.2% of the apprentices saw the aim of the apprenticeship scheme as related to trade training. This was by far the most commonly perceived aim of the scheme. In other words, the great majority of apprentices expected that they would be socialised into the role of tradesman at the school. Responses typical of this theme were:[2]

> The aim of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme is to develop good tradesmen, skilled in their task.
>
> The aim of the scheme is to train qualified tradesmen to keep the planes and other machines of the RAAF in top condition.
>
> The aim of the scheme is to teach boys a trade.

At the second testing at the end of their first year at the School, an even larger number of apprentices gave responses which related to trade training. In fact, almost all did so (98.6%).

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[2] Throughout this chapter responses given by apprentices to open-ended questions will be cited for illustrative purposes. The actual responses have been edited in minor respects only such as spelling correction, capitalisation, and the addition of some words not used by respondents because of the wording of the original question. For example, with the question 'What do you see as the main aim or aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme?', responses have frequently been prefaced with a phrase such as 'The aim of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme is'.

The second most commonly emerging theme at the first testing included responses which related to what might be called the 'national good'. In other words, apprentices saw the aim of the scheme as being in some way supporting national interests. At the beginning of the year, 40.1% of the apprentices gave responses of this type.

Some responses such as those reported below related to the progress and development of the nation:

> The aim of the scheme is to build a better and more powerful country.
>
> The aim of the scheme is to make better craftsmen for the country's economy.
>
> To train people to be in a good profession and to help keep Australia from going downhill.

Other responses showed concern with the defence of the nation. In this type of response there is a feeling that the scheme is training men so that the nation will be able to meet a military threat from a position of strength. Thus, in this type of response, the term 'to train fighting men' is commonly employed. One respondent expressed the view that the aim of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme is to 'train men in the best possible way so as to keep the Air Force in the air and one of the best fighting forces in the world'. Another sees the aim of the scheme as: 'to train fighting men in event of war and to have men to control and repair the functioning parts of the Air Force'. The 'be prepared' ethic also finds expression in such statements as 'the aim of the scheme is to keep Australia well stocked with reliable tradesmen in case we should be thrown into a war' and

'the aim of the scheme is to get a backbone for Australia's defence in the future'. In the words of another apprentice, the scheme aims 'to train young people for the most important job there is at this moment: to help in the defence of our country'.

By the end of the first year, however, the frequency with which such responses are offered falls markedly, from 40.1% of apprentices nominating it at the beginning, to only 7.9% at the end. By the second testing, there was almost no mention made of 'fighting men' or the defence of Australia. Only two apprentices mentioned training for efficiency during wartime and only four nominated the defence or protection of the country as the aim of the apprenticeship scheme. The downward trend in this type of response is reminiscent of what Becker and Geer (1958) labelled 'the fate of idealism'. They found that first year medical students entered medical school with the 'idealistic notion.....that practice of medicine is a wonderful thing and that they are going to devote their lives to the service of mankind'. However, their experiences during their first year of training temper their lofty expectations with a degree of realism and their former idealism begins to dissipate.

The third most commonly perceived aim of the scheme at the beginning of the year related to expectations the apprentices had for their own <u>personal development</u>. At the January testing, 38.7% of the recruits felt that the aim of the scheme was to change the students in some quite personal manner. Frequently, the apprentices seem to expect that the School would initiate them into some '<u>rite de passage</u>'. Thus there is common mention

of boys being changed into men and inculcation of attitudes and habits hitherto unpossessed.

Certain personal qualities are mentioned frequently as being ones which the School aims to introduce into the recruits:

> The aim of the scheme is to invoke self-disciplined, reliable and good steady working young men so that they can become decent law-abiding citizens of the community.
>
> The aim of the scheme is to discipline apprentices and to teach them a trade and teach them to respect their superiors.

Some apprentices felt that the scheme should make apprentices 'more mature', 'make good diggers out of us', and 'make men out of us' while others felt that the scheme would shape their futures:

> The aim of the scheme is to mould the future of some young Australians who are willing to make a go of life and are willing to work to get what they want.
>
> I think the aim of the scheme is to help young men gain themselves a worthwhile life as far as working is concerned as well as to try to help them socially.

By the second testing in December, this perceived aim of the RAAF apprenticeship scheme was even more frequently nominated. At the end of their first year at the School, 51.8% of the apprentices mentioned personal development as opposed to 38.7% at the beginning of the year.

At the first testing 24.7% of the apprentices gave responses which indicated that they saw the aim of the scheme as <u>preparation for the future</u>, either in the Air Force or in civilian life. In some responses, there is a suggestion that the scheme is seen as a sort of 'social catapult' which will

facilitate upward social mobility:

> The aim of the scheme is to give you a life on your way out to future life ..... They want to make better men and people out of us.
>
> The aim of the scheme is to help you get somewhere in life.

Other see the training as preparing them for a career in the Air Force:

> The aim of the scheme is to create a good career in a fighting service.
>
> The aim of the scheme is to train young men in an interesting and promising career at the same time benefit the country and its defences.

Still others saw the scheme as giving them the necessary skills to permit them to enter the civilian work force:

> The aim of the scheme is to put well-skilled and trained men into civilian life.
>
> The aim of the scheme is to teach young men, like myself, a trade that will enable them to survive quite easily outside the Service.

By the second testing at the end of 1969, the frequency of occurrence of the preparation for the future type of response had dropped slightly from 24.7% to 16.6%. Although fewer of the apprentices mentioned training for the future at the second testing, there was a tendency among those who did to think of their future in terms of Air Force career structures:

> The aim of the scheme is to train lads of apprenticeship age to become tradesmen in a certain field and also gets the apprentice used to discipline and the way the RAAF works. It also gives time for the RAAF to select prospective officers from the Scheme (author's italics)

> The main aims of the apprenticeship scheme as I see them are to train blokes to an extremely high standard of workmanship. To produce an entirely new airman who might become an NCO or an Officer. (author's italics)

In Table 7.1 below, is shown in summary form the percentage of apprentices who responded according to each of the previously discussed 'themes' both at the beginning of the year and at the end.

Table 7.1

Perceived Aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme
(In Percentages)

	January 1969	December 1969
Trade Training	86.6	98.6
National Good	40.1	7.9
Personal Development	38.7	51.8
Preparation for the Future	24.7	16.6

In order to comprehend the changes revealed in the above table, it is necessary to consider certain information about the recruits with respect firstly, to their motivation and secondly, their knowledge about the Air Force. As to the former, it should be noted that it is unlikely that many of the apprentices could claim to have had a strong and long-standing motivation to the RAAF. It is well known to RAAF recruiting staff that applicants for the Apprenticeship Scheme are also likely to be applicants for the Army and Navy Apprenticeship Schemes as well as civilian training and/or employment. Furthermore, as was discussed in Chapter IV, many apply for the RAAF

Apprenticeship Scheme (and the other Armed Services schemes) not out of any strong attraction to the organisation but simply because there is no possibility of training and/or employment in their local residential area. As was shown in Chapter IV, a large percentage of this intake of apprentices came from small-scale and rural communities where local opportunities are clearly limited. Since they must therefore leave home, their parents favour their joining organisations such as the RAAF which accept some custodial responsibility for their members and which, in addition to paying a wage, provide other services such as accommodation, meals and uniforms.

Despite the likelihood of no strong motivation to the RAAF, the table does indicate that at the commencement of training, the overwhelming majority of apprentices are positively motivated to trade training. Furthermore, many of them are concerned with trade training not so much for its own sake but in anticipation of what their training will ensure them in their future lives. The data in Table 7.1 indicate that at the commencement of their training, 24.7% of the apprentices saw the aim of the scheme as to prepare them for their futures.

As to the matter of the apprentice's prior knowledge about the RAAF, it appears that few if any of them could have had accurate expectations of life in the armed services and, in particular, the RAAF. As was shown in Chapter IV, only a little over one-third of the apprentices had been members of cadet organisations. Of these, about half had been members of the Air Training Corps. And there is no certainty in the case of those apprentices who had been members of cadet organisations

that their expectations of Service life would have been improved as a result. It is noteworthy that the findings reported in Chapter VI failed to show any relationship between previous military experience and success in military socialisation. Nor could much anticipatory socialisation have occurred via fathers of apprentices since only 6 of the apprentices had fathers who were members of the Armed Services.

What, then, could this intake of apprentices know about the RAAF at the commencement of their course? The data in the 'January 69' column of Table 7.1 give clues. Firstly, many would probably accept the 'conventional wisdom' that the Armed Services help mould character. Thus at the beginning of the year, 38.7% of the apprentices expected that one of the aims of the Scheme was to develop or change their personality.

This function attributed to or claimed by the Armed Services has been commented upon elsewhere. For example, Salas (1967) notes that the view of the Australian Army as a reforming resocialising institution is explicit in community attitudes reflected by informal policies of the police, educative departments and the Children's Courts. Salas cites the example of Children's Courts in some Australian States which are prepared to waive probation for some juvenile delinquents who gain enlistment in the Army.

Secondly, the new apprentices expect that they are joining an organisation whose activities are concerned with promoting Australia's broad interests. Thus, 40.1% of the apprentices expected that the aims of the Apprenticeship Scheme would in general be those of the RAAF, that is, looking after the national good.

Having set the scene by describing the approach of most apprentices to the RAAF in terms of their motivation to and knowledge of that organisation, it is now possible to consider the effects of their training and experience on their expectations.

The results in Table 7.1 show that two of the perceived aims of the Apprenticeship Scheme receive more nominations at the end of the year than they did at the beginning while the other two receive fewer nominations. There appear to be two broad trends emerging from the data. On the one hand fewer apprentices are inclined to perceive the aims of the scheme in idealistic and futuristic terms. That is, the aims of the scheme are less often seen as related to the national good or to preparation for future life. On the other hand, there is a tendency for more apprentices to see the aims of the Scheme in terms of the effects it has had upon them personally. Firstly, there is an increased awareness that the aim of the scheme is to train tradesmen and secondly, that it also aims to change them in a more personal way.

Why should these changes have occurred? Essentially, the explanation seems to be entirely one of expectations being tempered by experience. Thus, it is a simple reality for the apprentices that the School sets a number of immediate and short-term goals such as passing tests and examinations and completion of practical projects. In order to survive, the apprentices become 'caught up' in the day-to-day requirements of the course. As a result, former concern with long-term goals of future life is superseded by problems of the 'here and now'. So too it becomes plain through the theoretical and practical demands of the course

that one of the aims of the Scheme is to turn outtradesmen and that the link between their training and what they perceive as the raison d'être of the RAAF is tenuous indeed.[3] And, finally, many apprentices seem to be increasingly aware that their last year has been spent in what would have been for most of them a distinctively different sort of environment from any they had previously known. That environment, as described in Chapter V, is a 'people processing organisation' of the total institution type whose aim is not only to transmit a set of technical skills but is also to change and develop its members.

Perceived Qualities of a Good Apprentice

Another question which was asked of the apprentices both at the beginning of the year and at the end was: 'What are the qualities of a good RAAF apprentice?' Responses to this question were analysed in the manner described in Appendix D and categorised according to the 'themes' or response types which emerged. The analyses revealed the same set of themes emerging both at the beginning and at the end of the year so that comparisons between the two give some indication of changes which occurred during this year.

The most common theme extracted from the responses given at the beginning of the year related to attitudes to authority, authority figures and related qualities such as discipline and

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[3] Becker reports a similar finding in his study of first year medical students. Becker found that the subjects of his study were disillusioned when they found that they would not be near patients at all and that the first year would be just like another year of College. (1958:51)

ability to take orders. Almost two-thirds (65.5%) of the apprentices gave responses which could be classified under this theme. The following responses to the question are typical:

> An apprentice must learn to respect authority, obey orders.
>
> An apprentice has to develop a respect for his superiors.
>
> An apprentice must have a respect for higher authority.
>
> An apprentice must learn to accept discipline and authority as well as conducting himself in an orderly manner both on and off the base.

It is interesting to note that the specific term 'respect for authority' was nominated by 33.8% of the apprentices at the beginning of the year, as being one of the qualities of a good apprentice. However, by the end of the year, the number had dropped to 12%. That there was among this new group of recruits a real concern with authority at least early in their service, is borne out by the fact that in the Authoritarian-Submission Scale, almost 94% either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: 'Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn'.

By the end of the first year, however, the relative importance of 'authority' and related concepts had declined with only 36% of the apprentices mentioning it as compared with 65.5% at the beginning of the year.

At the beginning of the year, 57.8% of the apprentices nominated a large range of work and study related qualities which reflected a positive work orientation. Many, for example, felt that an apprentice must learn to extend himself:

> He must learn to do a lot of study.
>
> You must give your best in the job.

Other responses that were typical are as follows:

An apprentice must develop a conscientious attitude to work and study and be recognised as a reliable trainee.

He must be neat in his work.

An apprentice should be very safety conscious, efficient at his work.

An apprentice must learn to take his trade seriously and not as a joke.

By the end of the year, this type of response occurred with almost the same frequency. In January, the number who had responded in this way was 57.8% whereas in December it was 60.4%.

The third type of response revealed a positive Service orientation. At the beginning of the year, only 4.2% felt that a good RAAF apprentice must possess a 'good Service outlook', 'loyalty toward the Service' and so on. By the end of the year, this percentage had risen to 26.8%.

The final type of response related to personal cleanliness and tidiness in one's work. The frequency of response changed in this case from 34.5% at the beginning of the year to 7% at the end. The initially high frequency for this type of response is probably a consequence of thorough indoctrination in such matters which the recruits receive soon after their arrival at the base.

In Table 7.2 below, is shown in summary form the percentage of apprentices who responded to each of the previously discussed 'themes' both at the beginning and at the end of the year.

Table 7.2

Perceived Qualities of a Good RAAF Apprentice
(In Percentages)

	January 1969	December 1969
Positive Orientation to Authority	65.5	36.0
('Respect for Authority')	33.8	12.0
Positive Work Orientation	57.8	60.4
Positive Service Orientation	4.2	26.8
Cleanliness and Tidiness	34.5	7.0

The data in the table reveal a number of interesting trends over the course of the year in relation to what the apprentices perceive to be the qualities of a good RAAF apprentice. At the first testing, a large number of the respondents anticipated that a good RAAF apprentice had a positive orientation in two areas. The first was a positive orientation to work and the second was a positive orientation to authority. Additionally, a sizeable group of apprentices nominated attributes that had to do with personal cleanliness and tidiness while only a small number nominated qualities which reflected a positive Service orientation.

By the end of the year there were some noteworthy changes in the frequency with which some of these qualities were nominated. The one notable exception to this trend was the Positive Work Orientation. The perceived qualities which declined in significance were the Positive Orientation to Authority and Personal Cleanliness and Tidiness while Positive Service Orientation increased markedly. How can these trends be accounted for? With respect to Positive Work Orientation, one of the points raised in the preceding discussion of the Perceived Aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme seems relevant. At the time of joining the Air Force, the apprentices are highly motivated to trade training. It is not surprising therefore, as the data in Table 7.2 suggest, that a majority of apprentices expect that they will have to work hard in order to achieve their goal. Their experiences at the School serve to confirm these expectations. Thus, the Positive Work Orientation remains at a high level throughout the year.

The decline in the frequency of the Personal Cleanliness and Tidiness response is, as suggested earlier, probably a function of initial indoctrination at the School. In communal living such as that at RSTT, personal cleanliness is important

for community health standards; personal tidiness is highly valued by the military for its contribution to efficiency and orderliness. The emphasis on these qualities early in the career of the apprentices would have provided them with one of the few clues as to what the organisation endorses as a desirable quality of a good RAAF apprentice. By the end of the year, of course, the socialisation received in other areas overshadows that associated with Personal Cleanliness and Tidiness as the data in Table 7.2 suggest.

The other data in Table 7.2 reveal an apparent paradox. On the one hand there is a decline in the frequency with which Positive Attitude to Authority is nominated while at the same time there is an increase in Positive Service Orientation. Although at the second testing the latter still fails to be nominated as frequently as the former, the initial gap between them has been considerably narrowed.

There seem to be three possible explanations which alone or in combination might account for these findings. Firstly, it is possible that each is the separate reaction of a particular sub-group of the apprentice population. As has been seen from the results discussed in Chapter 6, certain sub-groups of apprentices are rated differently by both staff and peers, suggesting, perhaps, that they are reacting differently from their peers to their new environment. Also, Merton discussed the possibility of different reactions of individuals to environments with his Typology of Modes of Individual Adaptation (1968:194). However, the present data are inadequate as a basis on which to isolate types of reaction to the organisation of all apprentices, since they are

not drawn from all apprentices. At this stage, then, this possibility will not be discussed further.

Secondly, it is possible that the trends reflect reactions of apprentices to different elements of the RSTT environment. On this view, apprentices find that Service life is agreeable and they feel increasingly more comfortable in a Service environment. At the same time, perhaps, they find one aspect of Service life increasingly unpalatable and that element is the authority structure. Certainly, as will be shown at the end of this section of the chapter, some of the apprentices developed over the year what appeared to be a hostility or cynicism toward authority at RSTT.

The third possibility is that the changes have to do with the prior expectations of the apprentices and their subsequent socialisation experiences. On this view, prior to joining the Service and during the early stages of their Service life, the apprentices anticipate that one of the desirable qualities of a RAAF apprentice is a positive orientation to authority. This expectation is based upon the simple fact that the Air Force is one of the Armed Services and the conventional wisdom that the Armed Services demand such an orientation of the members. After their first year at the School, this orientation is clearly still important, but it is less so in terms of their initial, probably somewhat inflated expectations. At the same time that these expectations are being changed, the apprentices are undergoing other socialisation which results in a greater number of them nominating a Positive Service Orientation as a desirable quality of a good RAAF apprentice.

Only two related studies could be found in the literature and both report similar findings. Janowitz (1965:63) refers to an unpublished report by Christie who studied the impact of basic military training upon men in 48 squads in the U.S. Army. He found, among other things, that attitudes toward the institutional aspects of military life and of authority figures in the Army became more negative. Unfortunately, the finding is simply reported and not discussed.

The second study was by Campbell and McCormack (1957) who hypothesised that 'military experience produces authoritarian attitudes'. They reasoned that since the dominant characteristics of a military organisation are its authoritarian procedures, the consequences of participation in its training program necessarily heighten authoritarianism among those who successfully pass through such training. The authors administered a modified version of the California F-Scale to a group of officer cadets in the U.S. Air Force both at the beginning and at the end of one year of officer training. They found that their a priori expectations were not met and that there was a significant decrease in orientation toward superiors. Campbell and McCormack concluded that 'If experience in the Air Force has any effect upon general attitudes toward authority, it is to make them less authoritarian'.

Because their findings were contrary to what they expected, the researchers suggested that their data had come from special settings and was therefore possibly unique. The cadets were still students and, at the time of testing, had not taken their place in the military hierarchy. Presumably, it would be argued that authoritarianism would increase on the attainment of officer

status.

Janowitz (1965:17) has cited the results of the Campbell and McCormack study as an indication that military organisations are not as authoritarian as they are often imagined to be. He has accused social scientists like Campbell and McCormack of ignoring the 'vast transformations that have occurred in the military'. They have therefore 'continued to emphasise authoritarian, stratified-hierarchical, and traditional dimensions as a basis for distinguishing the military from the non military bureaucracy'. A similar case about the nature of military organisations is made by Speier (1950). However, from the theoretical description of military organisations given in Chapter II and the social analysis of RSTT in Chapter V, it is clear that such a contention is highly questionable. Certainly, military organisations (particularly those in Australia today) may not conform to some popular stereotypes of them. Nevertheless, to suggest that they are essentially the same as civilian bureaucracies is to ignore certain fundamental differences between the two.

In attempting to account for their unexpected findings, Campbell and McCormack suggest that because the subjects of their study were students, the normal expectations about attitudes to authority may not apply. Such an interpretation is reminiscent of Becker's concept of a 'student culture' which develops its own values and norms which are, sometimes and in some respects, contrary to the values and norms of the organisation. Campbell and McCormack's contention may, indeed, be of particular relevance to the present investigation. It will be recalled from the

discussion of results in Chapter VI, that the existence of a student culture was suggested by the fact that staff and apprentices seemed to have their own distinctive evaluative criteria for rating trade and military socialisation outcomes.

Finally, in this section, we shall examine certain of the responses given in the end of the year testing. Although small in number, the responses do, perhaps, reveal important information about the 'definition of the situation' adopted by at least some of the apprentices. Certainly, in any further investigation, these types of reaction to the situation would warrant closer study to determine whether they are general or peculiar to certain types of apprentices.

The first type of response centred upon the relations between individual apprentices and the larger group. For example, some responses indicate a greater awareness of the importance of the role of group norms. Some regard the influence of the group in a somewhat unfavourable light:

> You must not let your group mates influence you if you know they are doing wrong.
>
> An apprentice should be able to make up his mind without group influence.

Other apprentices reveal in their responses that it is not wise to resist group pressure:

> An apprentice must learn to take whatever the others dish out to him.
>
> An apprentice must have patience (so that you don't lose your temper with your mates otherwise they become your enemies.)
>
> An apprentice has to give a little and take a lot for the first year, if he doesn't he'll have to take more than normal.

> An apprentice must be able to give as well as take punishment, practical jokes and various other things. And to keep his bloody mouth shut. He must be able to get along with other blokes.

Others responded in ways which highlighted their perceptions of themselves as members of a group with consequent group responsibilities:

> An apprentice should learn to develop team spirit and not be one for himself.
>
> An apprentice should be friendly with other apprentices, don't be a loner.
>
> An apprentice should be trustworthy, friendly towards his mates. Not a bludger.

Similarly, the importance of good relations between apprentices is stressed in other comments:

> An apprentice must be able to get along with the other blokes on course.
>
> An apprentice must learn to get along well with others.
>
> An apprentice must learn to work with and get along with other blokes and, if he has the knowledge, help others who are a bit less knowledgeable.

The second type of response received betrays in a small number of the apprentices a degree of cynicism about the authority and discipline they have encountered at the School:

> An apprentice must learn, by what is drummed into him, to obey every little command (no matter how stupid it is) of every NCO and officer who for some reason (at this base anyway) think they are some kind of GOD.
>
> An apprentice should be reliable and steady minded. Also you must be a conformist to get anywhere.
>
> Don't buck discipline. Go by the book.
>
> You can't be a good apprentice unless you have a short haircut (so I'm told).

Such expressions of cynicism were voiced, however, only by a small number of the apprentices. As indicated earlier in this section, a good many others seemed, by the end of the year, to have adopted a more positive orientation to the Air Force.

Perceived Change

At the second testing in December 1969, the apprentices were asked 'In what way or ways have you changed since coming to RSTT?' Responses to this question were analysed in the manner described in Appendix D and categorised according to the 'themes' which emerged. It was possible to classify almost all of the responses into one of four major themes which form the basis of the following discussion.

The type of changes most commonly reported by the respondents were in the area of what could be called 'behavioural changes'. By behavioural changes is meant a change in personal or inter-personal behaviour. Over a third of the respondents felt that in some aspect of their behaviour they had changed over the year. For example, 25.9% of them reported that they had taken up or indulged more frequently in one or more of the following: smoking (14.4%), drinking (7.2%) and swearing (4.3%). Only 4.3% reported giving up or indulging less in those activities.

From the author's personal observations at the School, it would seem that the activities mentioned above are regarded by

the apprentices as visible signs of their new, adult status. Their function appears to be to reinforce the adoption of their new role. Of course, not all of the apprentices regarded this type of behavioural change as desirable. The following response although an isolated case may summarise the reaction of a larger group of apprentices:

> I believe I have changed from good to worse. Since coming here I have been encouraged to smoke, drink, swear and carry on as a pretty rowdy customer, as I have never done before.

Another kind of behavioural change related to interpersonal relations. Improved skill in this area was reported by 15.8% of the apprentices. Some noted that since being at the School, they had had the opportunity to meet more people than had previously been the case and this had helped them to 'get along with people much better' and 'make friends more easily'. Other typical comments related to an overcoming of shyness, more ability to work with and understand others and less sensitivity to personal criticism. The absence of comments about difficulties in interpersonal relations was no doubt due in part to suspension and voluntary withdrawal earlier in the year of some recruits who were less competent in this area.

The second most frequently reported perceived change was what could be called <u>maturing or personal development</u>. Over one third of the group (34.5%) reported changes all of which revealed a developmental, 'growing up' type of change. Mention was frequently made of 'having become more responsible', having learned to 'stand on my own two feet', having become more independent and so on. The following quote is typical of the

experience of many of the apprentices:

> Since arriving at Wagga, I have learned to live with others, to act as an individual, to have a broader outlook on life in general, and to make headway commonsense wise.

Another expresses his personal development in quite exuberant fashion:

> I have changed from being a fair bit of a coward always scared of getting hurt to an average 16 year old nut who'll try anything once.

This report of personal change tends to confirm the suggestion made earlier in this chapter that over the year, there was an increased awareness among the apprentices that one of the aims of the Apprenticeship Scheme is to produce personal change. It will be recalled that in Table 7.1 data were presented which showed an increase in the number of apprentices who perceived the aim of the Scheme in terms of personal development.

The often-noted adolescent concern with body-image manifests itself in the third of the themes extracted which relates to physical change. Almost one quarter (24.5%) reported that they perceived some physical change in themselves over the year. Comments ranged from simple observations such as 'I have got bigger', 'put on weight' and 'I have increased in height and weight' to 'improved build' and 'I have become tougher'.

The fourth most commonly reported change relates to integration into the Air Force (11.5%). By and large most of these comments reported greater integration over the year although a small number offered sour comments:

> The RAAF isn't all it is made out to be when your are told about it at Selection Board and so I have begun to dislike it.

> I have been degraded quite a bit by RAAF life. I realise now how good civvy life was. I've learnt how to go without things which I could afford last year when I was working outside. Now I know how Ben Gazzara feels in Run For Your Life on TV. I try to fit 12 months of good times into six weeks leave.

Most often, however, the comments received showed improved integration into the Service with such phrases as 'better suited to service life' and 'my outlook toward life and the RAAF has improved'. It was not uncommon for apprentices who gave this type of response to refer to the Air Force as 'home' indicating that in some senses, the RAAF had taken on the parental surrogate role as discussed in Chapter II.

> I now think of the RAAF as a home instead of a job only.

> I have come to think of the RAAF as a home away from home.

One apprentice contrasted life at home and life in the Air Force and comments on how he has changed and become better integrated:

> My whole idea of the place and people has changed. Coming from a pretty strict home I found I was too much of a goody-goody at first. I get on a lot better with friends now, seeing I join in better.

Another reported that during the year he had been given greater responsibilities and had come to realise that "the Service needs me".

Finally mention should be made of one of the manifestations of integration which occurred frequently in responses of the apprentices. Having adopted the Air Force as a positive reference group, some were inclined in their responses to this question to

contrast the Service and civilian life and indicate their preference for the former. Thus 'civilians' and 'civvy street' are mentioned in such a way as to indicate that the particular respondent identifies himself as no longer a member of the class of people 'civilian'. One apprentice reported that he seems to 'make friends easier (at the School) than in civvy street' while another in a more dramatic way indicates the strength of his attachment to his new reference group:

> I've learnt that when you fight civvies you have to fight dirty because they do.

In general, this suggestion of increased integration tends to be supported by one of the findings reported earlier. In relation to the perceived qualities of a good RAAF Apprentice, it was found that over the course of the year there was an increase in the number of apprentices who felt that a positive service orientation was one such quality. Both findings point to the relative success of at least those aspects of military socialisation.

In many respects the foregoing findings reported in this section are similar to those of Christie who studied the impact of basic military training on a group of draftees in the U.S. Army. Janowitz (1965:63) summarises findings as follows:

> One of the effects of basic training was an improvement in the recruit's personal adjustment - as measured by his perception of himself as being in good physical and psychological condition - and in positive relations with his peers. Thus basic training did succeed in developing self-esteem and a sense of social solidarity among recruits.

Lastly in this section on perceived change, it should be

noted that 8% reported that they had experienced no change during their first year at the School. Perhaps some of these had undergone sufficient anticipatory socialisation in other settings not to have been very profoundly influenced by what was for the majority of apprentices a completely novel life experience. In the words of one apprentice:

> I haven't changed much at all because I have had previous service training in Cadets and before coming I knew what to expect.

Ranking of Apprentice Qualities

Both at the beginning of the year and at the end, apprentices were asked to rank in order of importance the following five qualities: good appearance and bearing, good workmanship, dependability and reliability, good service attitude, and good trade knowledge. The five traits at one time formed the basis of the assessment procedure for apprentices. They were not, however, in use at the time of this study. For purposes of analysis, the table shows the percentage of times, both at January and at December that each of the five characteristics was ranked either first or second.

Table 7.3

First and Second Rankings of Characteristics in Order of Importance (in percentages)

	January	December
Good Appearance and Bearing	21.4	13.0
Good Workmanship	33.6	40.3
Dependability and Reliability	82.9	79.9
Good Service Attitude	33.1	23.7
Good Trade Knowledge	29.3	43.9

The data in Table 7.3 indicate clearly that Dependability and Reliability are considered by the overwhelming majority to be the most important characteristics. This was so both at the beginning and at the end of the year. However, it is not clear from these data whether Dependability and Reliability were considered in respect of the Air Force or of peers or as general qualities applicable to both referents. In either case, it can be seen that personal qualities are seen to be the most important characteristics.

Looking now to the other information in the table, it is seen that the two characteristics which relate specifically to the Service ('Appearance and Bearing' and 'Good Service Attitude') become relatively less important while the two trade related characteristics ('Good Workmanship' and 'Good Trade Knowledge') become relatively more important. This relative decline in Service orientation seems to conflict with other evidence reported in this chapter which suggested an improved Service outlook and greater integration into Service life at the end of the first year. It should be borne in mind, however, that this decline is a relative one which occurs in this instance as a direct result of the increase in trade orientation.

As was suggested earlier in this chapter, this increased trade orientation is brought about by two factors. Firstly, it is the inevitable consequence of being on course and surviving through the first year, of meeting a continuing array throughout the year of course requirements. It is, in short, a consequence of trade socialisation. Secondly, it is the manifestation of the overriding concern of the majority of apprentices: to get

trade training.

Summary

In this summary section, an attempt will be made to draw together the findings presented in this chapter so as to present a coherent account of some of the changes which occurred to this group of apprentices during the first year of their course at RSTT. Where possible, reference will be made to the theoretical concepts discussed in Chapter II.

The most obvious change that has occurred with this group of recruits is that they have become integrated into their new environment. To the extent, then, that integration is one of the aims of socialisation into an organisation, it is clear that those apprentices still on course at the end of their first year had been successfully socialised.

There are two aspects of this integration which seem to be important. Firstly, there is the integration into the formal structure of the Air Force. In the foregoing results, there is a very strong tendency for apprentices by the end of the year to have come to accept the Air Force as their future, to have come closer to accepting the definition of reality proposed by the RAAF and to have accepted the control which the Air Force has over their lives and the legitimate authority of the Service to sanction deviant behaviour. There is also a resulting tendency for apprentices to become aware of the differences between service and civilian life and to adopt the former as appropriate to their present circumstances.

Secondly, there is a greater integration between individual

apprentices and the total group and an increased awareness of the group's claims upon one's individuality, its ability to sanction unacceptable behaviour and its importance as a reference group. There is a tendency for individual apprentices to adopt new behaviours (such as smoking, swearing and drinking alcohol) in the acceptance of the new apprentice 'sub-culture'.

Notwithstanding the previously mentioned increased integration into the Air Force way of life, there is at the same time a marked lessening of concern with attitudes toward authority. At the beginning of the year, many apprentices endorsed the appropriateness of a proper respect for authority but by the end of the year, this matter was considerably less important. Either apprentices new to the Air Force expected that this was a desirable characteristic but in time revised this view, or, by the end of the year, an appropriate respect for authority had become so much part of the new way of life that it was unlikely to be consciously recalled. In this author's view, the former is more likely to be the case. Although it would be unwise to generalise from a small number of instances to the whole intake, there were some apprentices who, by the end of the year, had become quite cynical about the authority which they had encountered, and showed, if anything, marked lack of regard for it. Also in support of this view were the statements of apprentices interviewed in the preliminary investigation. A group of five of the previous intake (Number 22) had complained that their expectations of the authority at the School had not been met. They expressed the view that authority at RSTT was 'slack' and they compared themselves unfavourably with the intake

of Royal Australian Navy apprentices who had visited RSTT and who impressed with their lack of 'slackness'.

Associated with this decline in the perceived importance of respect for authority, there is relatively less importance attached to 'desirable' elements of Service life (Appearance and Bearing and Service Attitude) and relatively more attached to trade related characteristics (Workmanship and Trade Knowledge). In absolute terms, of course, the Service related qualities may still be seen as quite important. (Indeed mention has already been made of an improved attitude toward the Service in some apprentices by the end of the year). However, as compared with trade related characteristics, their importance declines.

There is evidence, too, that by the end of the year, the apprentices are more realistic and that their experiences at the School have served to temper their idealism. This appears to be associated with an acceptance of their situation. For example, by the end of the year, there were fewer apprentices who could relate their activities at RSTT to matters of national importance and there was less tendency to look too far into the future except insofar as the future was within the formal structure of the RAAF. By contrast with earlier idealism and future concerns, there was a marked swing to the problems of the 'here and now' and concern seems to be settled more upon doing the present job well, learning new skills and mastering them, and surviving in the present environment.

Finally, there were changes in the self-concepts of many apprentices. Some were aware of the physical changes which had

occurred to them over the year and appeared to be concerned with matters of body image. Others reported quite intimate personal change which had been wrought in them since they joined the Air Force. As part of the acceptance of a new 'student culture' many reported the adoption of new behaviours while others expressed the view that their experience at RSTT had developed them personally.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This chapter will begin with a summary of the findings of the study as discussed in Chapters VI and VII. It will then discuss aspects of the remainder of the thesis about which other general comments might be made. Finally, the chapter will close by suggesting three areas touched upon in this investigation into which greater research is needed in this country.

Findings

This study has attempted to answer two questions in relation to No. 23 Apprentice Intake at RAAF Base Wagga. Firstly, what were the relationships between some of the background characteristics of those being socialised and socialisation outcomes? Secondly, how were apprentices changed by their socialisation experiences at the School? Chapter VI dealt with the first question and Chapter VII with the second.

In Chapter VI, three areas of socialisation were assumed to be involved: trade socialisation, military socialisation, and peer group socialisation. (The first two are, of course, the manifest functions of the School; Chapter V and VII show that peer group socialisation also occurs). Three measures of trade socialisation were used: results in a Theory examination, performance in Practical work (both as assessed by the School), and Trade Proficiency (as assessed by peers). Two measures of military socialisation were used: Behaviour as a RAAF Member (as assessed by the School) and Military Proficiency (as assessed by peers). Finally, there was one measure of peer group

socialisation, Peer Group Acceptance (as assessed by peers).

A McQuitty Hierarchical Linkage Analysis was performed on the matrix of intercorrelations between the six criterion variables. The result of that analysis showed that two clusters of variables emerged: ratings by staff and ratings by peers. Since it seemed possible that two groups were using different evaluative criteria, the existence of a separate student culture was proposed.[1]

In many cases, the criterion variables showed high levels of intercorrelation. It was decided, therefore, that the presentation of results would centre upon each of the background variables in turn, with each one being related to all of the criterion variables. In this way, relationships between background variables and criterion variables which might not have been anticipated would be evident. A number of unexpected relationships were, in fact, found. In most cases, the associations were in respect of a small number of apprentices who, on one or more criterion variables, were rated higher or lower than average either by staff or by peers, or both. The following sub-groups

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[1]Of course, it could be argued that the two clusters are, at least in part and perhaps entirely, a consequence of the different methods used by each group. The staff rating, it will be recalled, included all apprentices while the apprentices nominated only those peers whom they wanted to. However, all ratings, with the exception of Theory, were made in respect of the members of each flight, the average number in which was twenty. It seems unlikely that with such small groups the different methods themselves could have produced findings which are so lowly correlated. The results are far more likely to be attributable to different evaluative criteria used by staff and peers than to different methods used by each.

of apprentices distinguished themselves in this manner on some of the criterion variables: those whose fathers were deceased (N = 7), those whose parents were divorced (N = 8), those whose parents were separated (N = 5), those whose preferred parent was father (N = 14) and those who did not know their fathers' occupations (N = 9).

Unfortunately, interpretation of these findings proved difficult for three reasons. Firstly, the results themselves fell into no apparently meaningful pattern. Secondly, there was no satisfactory theoretical framework to facilitate interpretation. And, thirdly, there were no similar studies whose findings could be compared with those of this study. However, it was suggested that these findings were worthy of further investigation as possible clues to understanding how persons from certain types of backgrounds respond to elements of certain types of organisations.

A number of associations between background and criterion variables which might have been expected on the basis of the discussion in Chapter III were indeed found. Thus, moderately strong to weak correlations were found between Theory and all but one of the selection tests (WA). Two of the tests, (ER and TA), both of which included an applied orientation, correlated with Practical but none were correlated with the peer assessment of Trade Proficiency. Those apprentices whose fathers were deceased were rated higher than average in two of the peer assessments and one of the staff assessments suggesting, perhaps, that they were adjusting well to their new environment. As to the sons of divorcees, there was some indication that they were

not as well regarded in some areas as in others. Thus, while their Theory results are good, and on Military Proficiency they are above average, in all other staff and peer ratings, they are well below average. Perhaps this group is reacting more favourably to some aspects of their new environment than to others.

So, too, as might have been expected, the sons of Skilled Manual workers performed comparatively well on Theory and Practical although their peers did not rate them highly on Trade Proficiency. The small number of sons of members of the Armed Services were rated higher than the average in the staff assessment of military proficiency (Behaviour as a RAAF Member) but only about average by their peers (Military Proficiency). Ex-Air Training Corps cadets were rated highest on Military Proficiency by peers. However, peers also rated ex-Army cadets lower than those apprentices who had not belonged to a cadet organisation. With staff ratings of Behaviour as a RAAF Member, there was very little variation in the scores although the ratings for ex-Air Training Corps and ex-Army cadets was in the reverse direction from peer ratings. That is, ex-Army cadets tended to be rated higher.

None of the expected relationships between criterion variables and the following background variables could be found: size of hometown of apprentice (Residential Origin), Number of Siblings, Perceived Family Cohesion,[2] and Perceived Power Relationship with

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[2] But see Appendix C where the results of a multivariate analysis of the data reveal an unexpected positive association between Perceived Family Cohesion and Peer Group Acceptance.

each Parent. Some of the interesting but unexpected associations were the negative correlations between Authoritarian-Submission and Peer Group Acceptance and between Authoritarian-Submission and Military Proficiency.

For any further study, it is the opinion of this author that the three-fold classification of socialisation ought to be retained. However, as suggested in the discussion in Chapter VI, certain improvements probably need to be made to the reliability and validity of the variables used as measures of these criteria.

Chapter VII looked at the impact of the School on the apprentices and attempted to assess the ways in which their experiences there had changed them. To this end, the apprentices were asked at the beginning and at the end of the year to nominate the aims of the apprenticeship scheme, the qualities of a good RAAF apprentice, and to rank five particular traits. They were also asked at the end of the year to describe in what way or ways they had changed. On the basis of responses to these tasks certain conclusions were drawn about the area of concern of this chapter. Firstly, as a result of their socialisation experiences, the apprentices became more integrated, both into the Air Force and into their peer group. This meant that they were more inclined to see themselves as members of both groups and to accept their authority. Secondly, there was a lessening of the initial concern with matters of authority and an increase in concern with attaining a good level of trade proficiency. There was, thirdly, a decrease in idealism and lofty expectations and the attainment of more realistic expectations. And, finally, there were changes in self-concepts reported. Some of these

changes related simply to body image while others were rather more profound personal changes.

The Theoretical Framework

Chapter II outlined the theoretical framework which appeared to be of most use for this particular study. Three areas of theory were drawn upon: theory of socialisation and, in particular, adult socialisation; organisation theory, and particularly characteristics of military organisations and total institutions; and, the dynamics of adult socialisation with organisations, particularly military organisations. Unfortunately, however, theory in this general area is not well developed. It proved to be very difficult, for example, to generate from the existing theory any specific hypotheses which might have been useful for this study. It seems likely that before theory reaches this ideal state, more empirical studies and particularly case studies such as the present one will need to be undertaken.

Probably the most important theoretical bridge to be crossed yet is the development of a rapprochement between the structural models and the processual accounts of adult socialisation within organisations. Compare, for example, the theoretical model proposed by Wheeler with the earthy description of on the job socialisation by Haas. Any adequate account of adult socialisation within organisations will need to take full account of both contributions. For the social sciences this is an increasingly pressing problem as more and more people spend more and more of their lives in organisational settings.

The Research Design

In Chapter III the research design for the present study was outlined and specific details given about the background and criterion variables. Toward the beginning of the chapter, mention was made of an attempt having been made to secure a control group against which the RSTT group could have been compared. Unfortunately, that did not prove to be possible. However, it is opportune to re-emphasise at this point the importance of the use of a control group. This comment by no means gainsays the importance and fruitfulness of the case study. However, the use of a control group provides a firmer basis for the study and permits more certain conclusions. For example, in the present study the changes which were found to have occurred in the Air Force apprentice group may not have been as a result of their experiences within the particular organisational context as described but may have been general experiences among first year trainees in a variety of settings. Doubt on this point would have been greatly reduced or even eliminated had the control group been made available.

The study might also have been improved by the inclusion of the 16 apprentices who dropped out during the first year of training. With their exclusion, of course, the population became even more truncated than it had been as a result of the stringent selection procedures. It is not surprising therefore, that it proved to be rather difficult to show strong relationships between background and criterion variables. It may have been particularly useful to interview the drop-outs in depth prior to their departure to explore their experiences of socialisation at

RSTT. However, as the researcher was not on hand on these occasions, this was impossible.

The fact that the researcher was not on location throughout the study raised a number of problems, two of which appear to be of particular significance. Firstly, there was the difficulty of conducting in-depth interviews with students and staff throughout the duration of the study. It is felt that had the researcher been on location throughout, very useful material could have been gleaned from interviews. Secondly, the researcher could have observed at closer quarters the dynamics of the socialisation process. Thus, this study suffers the deficiency of having nothing to report on socialisation in the class room or on the workshop floor and from having only second-hand accounts of some elements of peer group and military socialisation.

Apart from fuller, more frequent interviews, other techniques of information gathering may have proved useful. For example, one of the methods used by Wakeford (1968) in his study of the English Public Boarding School required boys to write 'advice to a brother' who would later come to the school. With this technique, Wakeford was able to extract from the boys their own feelings about the socialisation they had undergone and their own assessments of what were the important values, norms and rules of behaviour which had to be observed in order to survive in the school. The one difficulty with this technique for the present study is that it requires the informants to express themselves in writing. While the technique seems to have been suitable for English Public Boarding School students, the subjects of the present study seemed less inclined or able

to write fully and descriptively. Perhaps the 'advice to a brother' technique would be more useful as part of a face-to-face interview where there is a possibility of probing by the interviewer.

Final Comments

Following on from where this study leaves off, suggestions will be made for what seem to this author to be three areas in which research is needed in this country.

The first research need is to extend studies of adult socialisation beyond the professions and professional schools to other occupations and socialisation settings. Thus there should be more studies of trade socialisation, both in trade schools and on the job. As Wheeler comments about the situation in the United States, studies of adult socialisation are just beginning and they tend to accentuate what goes on in the largest and most visible socialising agencies. 'Although the great variety of trade schools may be numerically less important in the total number of persons they process, analytically they are a strategic locus for studies of socialisation processes and outcomes, and much should be learned from research on such settings' (1966:108). At the time of writing there are, to the author's knowledge, no published studies of other than professional socialisation in Australia.

As a corollary of the first need, the second is for research into socialisation within organisations in Australia. A sizeable number of Australians are institutionalised, either full or part-time, temporarily or permanently. It seems probable that a majority are educated and employed in organisations which in

varying degrees socialise new members. To what extent do people in institutions need to be socialised? How profound is the socialisation which takes place in child-minding centres, kindergartens, schools, prisons and hospitals? What changes occur in values and behaviour as a result of on the job socialisation and which professions, trades and employing organisations require more rigorous socialisation of their members? Answers to these and similar questions would greatly facilitate our understanding of Australian social structure and Australian value systems.

The third research need is for further study of militarism and military institutions in Australia. In this author's view, the paucity of studies in these areas constitutes a serious shortcoming of Australian social science. There has been a small number of studies of social processes within military organisations (vide Salas) and others which use military personnel as the subjects of study (vide Meade). Such studies shed little light, however, on the nature of military organisations, their value structures and goals, and the processes which occur within them. Likewise, almost no attention has been paid to the interrelationships between military organisations and other institutions in Australian society. Encel's (1967) paper appears to have been the only attempt to construct a systematic frame of reference within which military organisations in Australia might be studied.

The fact that these matters have been neglected is somewhat surprising in view of the growth of Australia's defence forces in recent years. The situation in this country is much like that in the United States where, as Janowitz (1965 :19) points out,

the military is no longer characterised by rapid expansion to meet military needs and rapid dismantlement when that need has passed. Rather, military organisations in both countries are large, stable structures with a relatively high rate of expansion. Clearly, more attention must be paid by social scientists to militarism and military organisations in Australia.

APPENDIX A
(AUTHORITARIAN SUBMISSION SCALE)

1.	One of my aims in life is to accomplish something that would make my parents proud of me.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
2.	Parents are much too easy on their children these days.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
3.	Children should associate more with children and less with their elders.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
4.	It is a pretty hard-hearted person that does not feel love and gratitude towards his parents.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
5.	At times I have very much wanted to leave home.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
6.	Disobedience to the government is never justified.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
7.	Military life is a good influence on most young men.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
8.	It is the duty of a citizen to support his country right or wrong.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .

9.	Only a fool would try to change our Australian way of life.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
10.	Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .

The above is a slight modification of the original scale.

Scoring Key

Strongly Agree	5
Agree	4
Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1
No Answer	3

In the case of item 5, the scoring is reversed.

APPENDIX B

(COMPULSIVENESS SCALE)

1.	I always like to see that my work is carefully planned and organised.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
2.	I always like to keep my things neat and tidy and in good order.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
3.	I like a well-ordered life with regular hours.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
4.	I like to have a place for everything and everything in its place.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
5.	I do not like to see people carelessly dressed.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
6.	It bothers me when something unexpected interrupts my daily routine.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
7.	I would rather be a steady and dependable worker than a brilliant but unstable one.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .
8.	I like to make a study plan then keep to it.	Strongly agree . . . . . Agree . . . . . Disagree . . . . . Strongly disagree . . . . .

9. I prefer a man to be carefully dressed rather than casually or carelessly.	Strongly agree	. . . . .
	Agree	. . . . .
	Disagree	. . . . .
	Strongly disagree	. . . . .
10. I am very careful about my manner of dress.	Strongly agree	. . . . .
	Agree	. . . . .
	Disagree	. . . . .
	Strongly disagree	. . . . .

Scoring Key

Strongly Agree	5
Agree	4
Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1
No Answer	

APPENDIX C

THE STEPWISE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS[1]

As indicated in a footnote on page 58, use was made of a multivariate statistical analysis in order to investigate the relationships between each of the criterion variables and certain of the background variables. The technique was used in an exploratory fashion to investigate whether the use of such a sophisticated device could aid in the analysis and interpretation of the data.

The Technique

Essentially this technique performs the same task as the usual multiple regression, that is, calculates the best possible combination of predictor or background variables which account for the maximum amount of variance in the criterion variable. However, when there are a large number of background variables, it is not always a simple matter to select the best combination of them. It would be both tedious and difficult to consider all possible combinations of background variables. Stepwise multiple regression overcomes this difficulty by sorting through the background variables and generating the optimum combination of background variables which account for the maximum amount of criterion variance.

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[1]I am grateful to Mr. D.S. Anderson for suggesting the use of this technique and to Mrs Marion Williams for introducing me to the technicalities of it. The computer program used in the analysis came from the Osiris II package. (The Osiris Manual, Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor Michigan).

The technique commences by selecting the predictor which correlates most highly with the criterion. That variable is then entered in the regression equation and the partial correlation coefficients of all other independent variables with the criterion are then calculated. Then, the variable with the highest partial correlation is entered into the equation, then the next, and so the process continues. At each stage, the partial F value for each background variable can be checked against the minimum acceptable level as previously set. (In this case, F level to remove = 3.6).

Sometimes a variable which has previously entered loses its explanatory power because of relationships between it and variables which enter at later steps. Such a variable would then be rejected. When no more variables are admitted to the analysis because of low F values and no more are rejected through loss of explanatory power, the procedure terminates.

The Background Variables

For purposes of this analysis, the continuous variables were used in the same form as they were in Chapter VI. In the case of the variables which could not be scaled, however, (that is, the categorical variables) it was necessary to convert them into 'dummy variables'. In this way, each category of a categorical variable was correlated with the criterion variable as though it were a variable in its own right. Thus, in this analysis, Type of School Attended has been treated as two variables, Attended Technical School and Attended Non-government School, with Attended State High School as a 'constrained category'.[2] Also,

[2]These constrained categories are excluded from the regression but their net effect is collected in the constant term.

Preferred Parent becomes Father Preferred and Mother Preferred with No Difference as the constrained category and Previous Military Association becomes Cadet and Non-cadet. Finally, Occupation of Father was treated as a directional, unidimensional scale of occupational prestige.[3]

One other limitation of this present investigation is that not all of the background variables have been included.[4] The following are those which were used:

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[3]One of the designers of the occupational classification, F.L. Jones, suggested in a personal communication that the six category scheme could legitimately be used in this fashion with 'Professional' being scored 6 down to Unskilled Manual and Service scored 1. Of course, this usage of the classificatory Schema is quite different from that in Chapter VI. There the interest was not in prestige of father's occupation but in opportunities for anticipatory socialisation open to apprentices whose fathers were in certain types of jobs. In the analysis to follow, Occupation of father is not chosen as one of the background variables which explains a significant proportion of criteria variance.

[4]My supervisor, Mr D.S. Anderson, Head of the Education Research Unit at the Australian National University, suggested that I might profitably use this technique as a supplement to the analysis in Chapter VI. Unfortunately, by the time this could be arranged, I was no longer resident in Canberra, and, as well, the Unit had heavy demands on its financial and staff resources. Mr Anderson therefore very kindly chose the background variables to be included in the analysis. His choices were restricted by the above limitations and guided by his familiarity with my areas of interest and the indications from the data in Chapter VI, as to which variables might profitably be included.

WA
MX
TA
APPSM
MA2
ER
Occupation of Father
Perception of Family Cohesion
Father Preferred
Mother Preferred
Attended Technical School
Attended Non-government School
Cadet
Non-cadet
Authoritarian-Submission
Compulsiveness

The results of the analysis are shown in summary form in Table C.1. The table shows the final solution worked in respect of each of the six criterion variables. For each criterion, the background variables are listed in the order in which they were selected in the technique. Alongside each background variable is shown in brackets the final beta weight for that variable. At the bottom of each column is shown the proportion of variance accounted for in that particular criterion by the background variables selected.

Discussion

Overall, the ability to account for variance in the criterion variables ranges from moderately good to inability. In the case of the criterion Theory (staff rating) it was possible to account for 34% of the variance with three selection tests and one other variable. The three tests were APPSM, ER, and TA, all of which had shown statistically significant correlations with Theory. However, tests MX and MA2 which also correlated significantly

Table C.1

Final Solutions for Stepwise Multiple Regression Analyses

Criterion Variables

	Theory	Practical	Trade Proficiency	Behaviour as a RAAF Member	Military Proficiency	Peer Group Acceptance
Variables chosen (in order of choosing) Final beta weights shown in brackets.	APPSM (.31) ER (.29) Attended Technical School (.22) TA (.29)	Father Preferred (-.2) ER (.18) Attended Non-government School(-.15) Compulsiveness (.19)	None Chosen	Attended Technical School (.27) Father Preferred(-.17)	Authoritarian Submission(-.25) Compulsiveness* (.15) APPSM* (.21) WA* (-.19)	Authoritarian Submission(-.3) Family Cohesion(.16)
Total amount of Variance accounted for.	34%	17%	Nil	8%	11%	11%

*The product moment correlation coefficients between these background variables and the criterion did not reach statistical significance at the .05 level of confidence.

with the criterion were not chosen out by the regression analysis. As is clear from the table in Appendix E, these selection tests show, in general, moderately high intercorrelations. The regression analysis has, then, suppressed those which make no unique contribution to accounting for variance in the criterion.

The second criterion variable is Practical (staff rating) and with four of the background variables it was possible to account for 17% of the variance in criterion scores. One of the background variables was ER but TA, which was statistically correlated with the criterion, has been suppressed. In other respects, the regression analysis confirms the findings made earlier in Chapter VI.

With the peer rating of Trade Proficiency, the regression analysis failed to find any background variables which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance. This is somewhat surprising since on the basis of the information in Table 6.12, it might have been expected that Non-Cadet would be selected out with a positive weighting, or Cadet with a negative weighting.

With the first of the military socialisation criterion variables, Behaviour as a RAAF Member (staff rating), it was possible to account for 8% of the variance in scores with two background variables. The two were Attended Technical School and Father Preferred, the latter being weighted negatively. The finding in respect of these two variables confirms what was reported in Chapter VI.

Four background variables were chosen out to account for 11% of the variance in Military Proficiency (peer rating). Two of the four were selection tests: APPSM received a positive

weighting and WA a negative weighting. From Table 6.3 it is clear that neither of these variables is correlated at a statistically significant level with the criterion. In this case, then, the regression analysis has highlighted two background variables which previously were not considered to be significantly associated with the criterion.

The other two variables which were chosen out were Authoritarian-Submission and Compulsiveness, the former being weighted negatively. Although on the basis of the data in Table 6.13 the importance of Authoritarian-Submission was suggested, the data in Table 6.14 did not indicate that Compulsiveness might be of importance in accounting for variance in Military Proficiency.

Finally, on Peer Group Acceptance, two of the background variables were able to account for 11% of variance in the ratings. One of the two (Authoritarian-Submission) was clearly related to the criterion in Table 6.13. However, Perceived Family Cohesion was not correlated at a statistically significant level (see Table 6.9). This finding reveals a previously unsuspected positive association between the degree of cohesion seen by the apprentice in his family and his popularity with his peers.

It is evident, then, from this brief discussion that the use of more than one technique of analysis of data - particularly if that technique is based upon different sets of assumptions - may be very valuable. In particular, the stepwise regression analysis offered two advantages over the more simple analytical techniques used in Chapter VI. Firstly, it suppressed those variables which, although they might have been correlated at a

statistically significant level with a criterion, did not account for a unique proportion of the variance in that criterion. Thus, for example, in the analysis with Theory as the criterion variable, only three of the selection tests were selected out while another two, although correlated with the criterion, were not.

Secondly, the technique points up variables which otherwise might not have been expected to account for significant proportions of variance in the criterion. Thus, for example, in the analysis with Peer Group Acceptance as the criterion, Perceived Family Cohesion was shown to account for some of the variance although the more simple analysis in Chapter VI would not have suggested that such was the case.

APPENDIX D

ANALYSIS OF OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

In all, there were five open-ended questions asked in this study. This number comprised two which were asked both at the beginning and again at the end of the year ('What do you see as the main aim or aims of the RAAF Apprenticeship Scheme?' and 'What are the qualities a good RAAF apprentice must learn to develop?') and one which was asked only at the end of the year ('In what way or ways have you changed since coming to RSTT?'). All questions were designed to elicit information about the effects of socialisation, both formal and informal, which the apprentices experienced during their first year at RSTT. In analysing the responses, therefore, the aim was to draw out 'themes' or types of responses to highlight common perceptions and experiences.

Although in analysing responses the author kept in mind the three types of socialisation proposed (trade, military and peer group), the analysis essentially was viewed as an attempt to find meaning in the data. Often this approach involved departure from the a priori framework.[1]

Responses to the questions were, in general, brief and

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[1]Little (1969:24) also found this procedure necessary in his exploratory study of the impact of the university on students. As in the present analysis, Little proceeded through a set of early categories (which he labelled "phenotypical") and then to the construction of broader, "genotypical" categories.

unambiguous. Consequently, the initial step of tabulating the frequency of occurrence of each response was a relatively simple task. Of course, respondents used slightly differing wording and phraseology so that it was necessary to use an elementary form of classifying responses. For example, in relation to the question on the perceived aims of the Apprenticeship Scheme, the following responses would have been treated as being the same since they are all concerned with national defence: 'To help protect Australia from a common threat', 'To train young people for the most important job there is at this moment; to help in the defence of our country' and 'To get a backbone for Australia's defence in the future.' If a respondent expressed the same thought twice in his answer using different wording in each case, the thought was counted only once. On the other hand, each different thought expressed by a respondent was included in the count.

After the initial tabulation was completed, the next task was to allocate the responses to broader and more general categories of response. For example, to the responses used as examples in the preceding paragraph would be added others such as the following which together would make up the category 'National Good': 'To turn out efficient tradesmen for the support of the country', 'To keep Australia from going downhill', and 'To make better craftsmen for the country's economy.'[2]

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[2]Of course, the first and the third quotes here contain two thoughts. In both instances there are thoughts which would be classified under the heading of "trade training": "To turn out efficient tradesmen...." and "To make better craftsmen....".

Of course, certain rules were observed in the creating of categories. Firstly, categories should as far as possible be mutually exclusive. Secondly, the categories, in combination, should account for the majority of the responses. Thirdly, the categories should be of some general theoretical significance and usefulness.

Clearly, it might be possible for other researchers to suggest an alternative set of categories into which the responses could have been classified.[3] However, as is clear from the relevant parts of Chapter VII, the categories are satisfactory for purposes of this study from two points of view. Firstly, they are useful as summaries of broad types of experiences of and reactions to the School. And, secondly, they possess a degree of face validity, that is, they are plausible as categories which respondents might use to describe perceptions and reactions.

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[3]The actual responses of each subject to all five questions are held by the author and can be made available for inspection.

APPENDIX E

PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CONTINUOUS VARIABLES

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	-	22	-04	-10	-13	-08	-16	-02	13	05	08	09	06	06	06	-03	11	-08	-08	-01
2		-	04	11	14	03	06	06	02	08	04	11	-01	-04	05	-03	14	-03	03	09
3			-	-12	05	-06	-02	-05	05	01	-24	-04	-07	05	-04	-09	-05	-05	02	-10
4				-	05	-12	12	11	-20	-03	-06	-03	-07	-08	03	02	05	13	07	11
5					-	57	-12	-01	-05	-05	01	-10	-14	13	08	-02	06	15	07	-06
6						-	06	21	-12	-07	04	-05	-03	04	05	08	08	11	08	-08
7							-	31	-16	11	-01	06	09	-04	-06	-01	-10	-28	-14	-17
8								-	-16	-10	-18	03	03	-06	-04	18	09	06	12	11
9									-	28	14	25	24	16	08	-11	-06	-08	-06	-12
10										-	42	42	55	09	16	03	02	-01	03	03
11											-	38	45	26	36	20	17	-05	02	04
12												-	65	15	40	06	10	00	14	15
13													-	16	28	02	08	06	07	00
14														-	39	19	10	06	13	09
15															-	45	48	11	24	29
16																-	48	27	21	33
17																	-	19	59	72
18																		-	26	18
19																			-	47
20																				-

N = 142
(Decimal points have been omitted)

KEY TO VARIABLES

1. Size of Home Town
2. Occupation of Father
3. No. of Siblings
4. Family Cohesion
5. Decisions with Mother
6. Decisions with Father
7. Authoritarian Submission
8. Compulsiveness
9. WA
10. MX
11. TA
12. APPSM
13. MA2
14. ER
15. Theory (staff test)
16. Practical (staff rating)
17. Trade Proficiency (peer rating)
18. Behaviour as a RAAF Member (Staff rating)
19. Military Proficiency (peer rating)
20. Peer Group Acceptance (peer rating)

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